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Introducing Change in the Citizenship Education Curriculum
of a Hong Kong Primary School through Action Research

YIP WAI LIN TERESA

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ABSTRACT

This action research project reports the trial of an action learning pedagogy in the citizenship education curriculum of a primary school in Hong Kong. The project was a response to *Learning to Learn – The Way Forward in Curriculum Development* published by the Curriculum Development Council (CDC) in 2001. The document recommended that implementation of moral and civic education should be child-centred and should allow students to participate actively in learning.

The study adopted both qualitative and quantitative methods. It consisted of three cycles of action research: (1) demonstration teaching by the researcher; (2) classroom teaching by a teacher in the school; (3) service learning. Five moral values: respect for others, civic and social concern, collaboration, participation, and self-regulation were identified from the CDC document, in order to investigate changes in the second and third cycles. The response and reactions of students suggested that action learning was effective in the aspects of knowledge, skills and values in the first cycle. However, the reactions of the four teacher-observers caused changes in implementation of action learning pedagogy in the second cycle.

In the second cycle, the classroom teaching conducted by a teacher suggested that an action learning pedagogy provided opportunities for participation. Data illustrated that students displayed significant change in collaboration and participation but did not show obvious change in the other three values. After initial problems, the experimental teacher became more confident and competent in use of the action learning pedagogy.

The third cycle was a service learning project in a special school for serious mentally handicapped children. A questionnaire on the five moral values was conducted before and after the service learning project. The questionnaire consisted of two parts: Part I was composed of 30 items; each described a scenario of five moral behaviours; and Part II focused on 10 moral values. Results of Part I did not show many significant changes. However, the results of Part II showed significant changes in the post-test survey. Qualitative data indicated that students demonstrated significant changes in the five moral values identified from the CDC document.

The results of the research were partially encouraging. Students' learning was enhanced. However, the results also revealed problems in the implementation of the action learning pedagogy, for example the teachers' workload at a time of rapid reforms of the education system.

DECLARATION

I declare that this thesis represents my own work, except where due acknowledgement is made, and that it has not been previously included in a thesis, dissertation or report submitted to this University or to any other institution for a degree, diploma or other qualification.

Signed _____

by
YIP Wai-lin, Teresa

March, 2007

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LIST OF ABBREVIATION

ASLER	the Alliance for Service-Learning in Education Reform
BDTC	British Dependent Territories Citizens
BYOB	Bring Your Own Bag
CCP	Chinese Communist Party
CDC	Curriculum Development Council
ED	Education Department
EMB	Education and Manpower Bureau
EPA	Economic and Public Affairs
EPPI	The Evidence for the Policy and Practice Information and Coordinating Centre
EU	European Union
IT	Information Technology
KLA	Key Learning Areas
QCA	Qualifications and Curriculum Authority
NCC	National Curriculum Council
NFER	National Foundation for Educational Research in England and Wales
NPCSC	the Standing Committee of National People's Congress
PRC	the People's Republic of China
PSHE	Personal, Social and Health Education
SAR	Special Administration Region
UK	the United Kingdom
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Since the signing of the Sino-British agreement in 1984 agreeing at Hong Kong would be returned to Chinese sovereignty in 1997, there has been growing concern among the public that our youngsters are not well prepared to take up their role as citizens of China and the Hong Kong Special Administrative Region. For example, the Curriculum Development Council (1996) in a document entitled *Guidelines on Civic Education in Schools* identified fundamental changes and challenges in the lives of children. These included social, economic and political change. The document went on to raise “the need to strengthen civic education, with a view to preparing students to become rational, active and responsible citizens in facing challenges arising from the above changes”. (p.1)

As Marshall (1950) remarks, the purpose of citizenship education in schools is to shape future citizens. Lo and Man (1996) assert that “the essential role of education is recognized for the development of societies, for its power to impart relevant civic knowledge to the citizens, as well as for its strengths to cultivate the desirable values and appropriate attitudes in the persons”(p.x). These educators have highlighted the importance of citizenship education in schools. However, citizenship education, in many countries, is not an independent subject.



In some places, although citizenship education is recognized as a subject, it is not compulsory. In examination-oriented education systems, schools usually give civic or citizenship education a low priority. As Davies (1995) argues, citizenship education has been neglected in the curriculum. In Australia, given the importance of external examinations in Year 12, and their assessment-driven influences over the school curriculum, citizenship education was not even recommended for the upper years of secondary schooling (Civics Expert Group, 1994). This scenario, in fact, is common in almost all countries in the world, not Australia alone. In Hong Kong, citizenship education is not compulsory either. The implementation of citizenship education in primary and secondary schools is mainly through formal and hidden curricula.

The author conducted a survey of the implementation of citizenship education in thirteen primary schools in 1999 and found that in primary schools it was basically implemented through the hidden curriculum (Chai-Yip, 2003). When citizenship education was more visible in the formal curriculum, it was offered in schools mainly through a cross-curricular approach. Among the school subjects, General Studies¹ and Chinese Language were the subjects regarded as more explicitly related to citizenship education. In sum, the implementation of citizenship education in

¹ General Studies is a core subject in Hong Kong primary sector. This subject was an amalgamation of Social Studies, Science and Health Education and was implemented in 1996.

primary schools was not visible, and schools did not provide adequate opportunities for students to participate actively in learning about their future role as citizens. Nor did citizenship education help to develop another priority of the Education and Manpower Bureau: to develop independent and active learners.

The above survey was carried out while the author was the senior lecturer of the Hong Kong Institute of Education. This post provided opportunities for a further and more detailed investigation which is reported in the present thesis. In particular I wanted to explore in what primary schools could contribute to the development of citizenship education and how citizenship education could contribute to the development of children's value.

The Curriculum Development Council (2001) was aware of the problem in the implementation of citizenship education and published an education document entitled *Learning to Learn – The Way Forward in Curriculum Development*. The document identified development of moral and civic education as one of the four key tasks to help students to develop independent learning capabilities in schooling, along with reading to learn, project learning and information technology (IT) for interactive learning. This implies that CDC (2001) regarded citizenship education as being as important as the core curriculum subjects. That view, however, was apparently not shared by the government because citizenship education is still not a compulsory

subject. The document further suggested action learning inside and outside the classroom as an effective strategy.

In another document, *Basic Education Curriculum Guide—Moral and Civic Education*, the Curriculum Development Council (CDC) (2002a) urged schools to nurture in their students five priority values: perseverance, respecting others, responsibility, national identity and commitment. CDC also recommended that schools adopt the new strategy of “Life Event Approach” in implementing moral and civic education. This aimed to “enable students to understand a range of events and issues that they might come across in schooling and future life, and to develop positive values and attitudes through dealing with them” (CDC, 2002a, p.8). In addition adoption of the Life Event Approach was to have a learner-focused orientation with authentic learning and multi-perspectives on important issues (pp.1 –10). CDC (2002a) further suggested that schools should attempt to adopt a whole-school approach to maximize students’ and teachers’ participation in learning activities such as community service (pp.12-14). To summarize, CDC contended that effective implementation of citizenship education should be child-centred, and participatory in authentic learning contexts.

Nevertheless, the methods of implementation of citizenship education specified in the two educational documents are not in line with current practice in schools.

Space for the development of citizenship education is limited. We have to fully utilize this limited space in developing methods of teaching and learning through citizenship education.

Lee (1999) contended that the major difficulties in the implementation of civic education are: lack of financial support, competition with the examination-oriented subjects and other extra-curricular activities, lack of guidelines for teachers, lack of interest among students and the absence of activities that are both ‘educational’ and ‘entertaining’ (p.334). Yip’s (1998) research on the implementation of citizenship education illustrated that current practice could not arouse students’ interest in learning; largely because teachers lacked training and competence. The teaching of citizenship education has long been didactic and teacher-centred. This is far from the approaches to teaching and learning of citizenship education specified in the two educational documents. If the aim of citizenship education in Hong Kong is to prepare students “to become rational, active, responsible citizens in facing challenges arising from the above changes” (CDC, 1996, p.1), it is doubtful whether it can be achieved through current pedagogy.

With a view to investigating how the aims of citizenship education as specified in the two educational documents might be achieved, this research study describes the planning, implementation and evaluation of an action research approach to citizenship

education in one Hong Kong primary school. However, citizenship and citizenship education are complex concepts. In this thesis, the next three chapters review the literature on the concepts of citizenship and citizenship education, its content and pedagogic approaches to teaching the subject. Chapter five explains and discusses the research methodology adopted for this study. Chapter six analyzes the first cycle of action research which consisted of demonstration teaching to teachers in the experimental school. Chapter seven reviews the first cycle of the action research and introduces the plan for the subsequent cycles. Chapter eight evaluates the second cycle of the research project which was classroom teaching conducted by a teacher of the school. A pre- and post-test questionnaire survey was conducted before and after the third cycle of the action research, namely the service learning project. Chapter nine reports the analysis of the questionnaire survey results. Chapter ten evaluates the third action research cycle. This was a service learning project conducted in a special school for children with serious mental handicap. The last two chapters discuss the implications of the findings in this study, which aims to provide further understanding about the implementation of citizenship education in schools, the effectiveness of service learning as an implementation strategy, and the effects of action research on teachers' professional development in the process of developing new teaching strategies for citizenship education.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REIVIEW (I) CONCEPTS OF CITIZEN AND CITIZENSHIP

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Soon after the handover of Hong Kong to Chinese sovereignty in 1997, there was serious dispute between the Hong Kong SAR Government, the lawyers and the legislative courts over the issue of the right to permanent residency of Chinese children who were born in Mainland China, with but one of their parents as the permanent resident of Hong Kong. Although the Court of Final Appeal made a verdict in 1999 that these children had the right to stay in Hong Kong, the dispute did not die down. The SAR government refused to implement the Court judgment. Instead, in the same year, the Government brought forward this matter to the Standing Committee of National People's Congress (NPCSC) for re-interpretation. As a result, the judgment made by the Court of Final Appeal and upheld in the amendments to the immigration ordinance (Ghai, 2001) was criticized by the NPCSC. The legal profession in Hong Kong criticized the government for not respecting the legal system that was laid down in the Basic Law and ignoring the citizen rights of a certain group of citizens in Hong Kong.

The dispute reflects conflicting views towards what constitutes a citizen in Hong

Kong. The diverse concepts of citizenship can lead to controversial policy decisions that affect people's rights of abode. The above example shows how diverse interpretations of the definition of citizen in a legal sense would affect one's rights as a citizen. Likewise, different perception of the nature of citizenship will affect what is expected of a citizen in terms of their rights and responsibilities within the society, as well as their attitudes and obligations towards the society. This chapter will review some major views on citizenship in the literature. These will provide a focus for this study – an examination of the citizenship qualities to be developed among Hong Kong students.

2.2 CONCEPTS OF CITIZENSHIP

2.2.1 Classical Citizenship

Fout and Lee (2005), in their review of concepts of citizenship, have identified a series of citizenship concepts developed over time, namely, classical citizenship, liberal citizenship, social citizenship, national citizenship and multiple citizenship. This section will review the concept of classical concept, which is an important starting point for understanding the various citizenship concepts that emerged later. Heater's (1990) work is particularly useful in tracking the development of classical citizenship concepts. Heater's historical approach has provided insights in identifying

several significant changes across time, from the Greek period to the medieval period in Europe.

It has been generally accepted that the concept of citizen emerged in Greece (Clarke, 1994). Aristotle (1946, translated), points out that “there is no general agreement on a single definition” (p.93). For Aristotle, citizenship is a relative term, depending upon the features of any given constitution. However, he considers a citizen as “a man who enjoys the right of sharing in deliberative or judicial office”(p.134). At Aristotle’s time, citizenship in the Greek city-state was a privilege, a status and was inherited. Not all residents in Greece had the same rights such as right of possessing property. Women, children, resident foreigners, slaves and the peasantry of the rural areas were not included (Heater 1990). The Greek state demanded that citizens display their qualities and virtues in behaviours such as knowledge, loyalty, selfless, and cooperative attitudes. Citizens were equipped with knowledge about the judicial processes, policy-making, etc. in order to carry out their duties. Therefore, one of the characteristics of the Greek citizenship is they had to perform many public duties. Besides, they had obligation to participate actively in attending the Assembly, selection, chosen by their lord. They also had to defend their country by taking up military duties when necessary.

One thing worth to note during this period was the assertion of the cosmopolitan

idea of citizenship. Alexander the Great, influenced by Aristotle who was his teacher before he became emperor, put this revolutionary idea into practice that he expunged the distinction between Greek and barbarian, gathering all under his sway into a 'union of hearts'. Heater (1990) commented that 'this belief in the essential uniformity of mankind was reflected in the acceptance that all men are endowed with reason and all are subject to the same basic law of nature (p.10).'

Citizenship concepts in Greek times largely focused on status and office, and were much broadened in the Roman period. In the first place, in mid-fifth century BC, the Roman government made non-citizens eligible for careers which were originally for full citizenship only. Secondly, the Roman government, because of historical and political reasons, allowed their citizens to hold dual 'Latin' and 'Roman' citizenship. Thirdly, class status became more important than the rank of citizen. For instance, landowners and the military had more respect than the poor citizens. Fourthly, during the reign of Emperor Caracalla, the status of citizenship was extended from the Italians and the provincial elites to all men within the Empire, except slaves in order to recruit more people in the taxation net.

Such changes, in fact, overshadowed the rights and duties of citizenship that Greek citizenship had always emphasized. It also downgraded the high standard of citizenship. Nevertheless, the good Roman citizen, like the good Greek, was

expected to possess virtue—the willingness to serve his state, though perhaps the stress on military service was greater than the juridico-political service.

The medieval period further expanded the Roman concepts of citizenship. The growth of regional power in Europe led to the demand for loyalty from citizens. The citizens' loyalty was sharply focused by “the powerful concentrating forces of patriotism and nationalism” (Heater, 1990, p.20). Citizens had a strong regional sense of identity. People felt a sense of identity beyond their families and villages. When there was crisis or war, a sense of national loyalty emerged.

The medieval concept of citizenship had significant features. First, urban citizenship was founded on two principles: freedom and fraternity. As Heater (1990) said, “Any bondman was free who escaped from his lord to a town for a year and day... The principle of fraternity was institutionalized in a common commitment to military service... (p21)”. Second, is the feature of property-ownership. In the past, only citizens could own property, but in some places like Parma, a non-citizen could be admitted to citizenship if he built a house with 100 lira (Heater, 1990). The special features of ancient Greeks citizenship, ancient Roman citizenship and medieval citizenship are outlined in the following table:

Table: 2.1 Special features of ancient Greeco-Roman citizenship

Periods	Special features
Ancient Greece	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • inherited privilege status • duties such as military service, judicial service • civil rights, e.g. property ownership, selection and chosen • qualities: knowledgeable, active participation, selfless, cooperative, loyalty
Ancient Rome	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • dual citizenship: Latin and Roman • class status was more important than rank of citizens • extension of right e.g. eligibility of possibilities of careers • extension of citizens net to all the provinces within the Roman Empire • duties: military service, juridico-political service • qualities: loyalty, willingness to serve the state
Medieval	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • freedom and fraternity • rights: property ownership opened to non-citizens • qualities: national identity, loyalty

In sum, the classical concepts of citizenship were mainly characterized by an emphasis on the political status of the privileged class. The expected qualities of citizens were allegiance, patriotism, responsibility and the willingness to serve. Participation in public life was regarded as crucial to the development of personality. The Greeco-Roman state demanded that citizens perform their duties and actively participate in the states' affairs, for example, by defending the country, voting and being elected, etc.

2.2.2 *Liberal citizenship*

According to Heater (1992), the concepts of liberal citizenship emerged after the French Revolution. The origin and nature of government under liberalism is

established by the 'people', and therefore, all people have a right to participate in the governing process. The liberal notion of citizenship focuses on the freedom and rights of individual. As Fouts and Lee (2005) assert, liberal citizenship 'entitles the individual to certain rights that cannot be taken away, and the government exists to protect those rights, such as life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness.' (p.37)

Referring to this, Bahmueller (1991) comments:

The view holds that the rights of citizenship are important primarily because they enable citizens to protect themselves from the government and to advance individual liberty and interests. It emphasizes that whether or not one assumes some or all of the traditional obligations of citizenship is a matter of choice. (p.611).

According to Gunsteren (1994), concepts of liberal citizenship are characterized by: (1) the gradual emancipation of an individual's benefits and steady enhancement of individual rights; (2) the extension of the franchise; (3) the protection of individual rights by the government; and (4) the importance of citizen's responsibilities (p.21). Bahmueller (1991) contends that liberal citizenship emphasized citizen rights:

Citizens have the right to choose the degree of involvement they wish to have in civic affairs, and, therefore, have a right not to be involved at all, to be slightly involved, or to be fully active participants (p.611).

Heater (1992) is aware that the value of citizenship would be eroded if the

maintenance and extension of the liberal idea of citizenship were to be extended. He emphasizes the development of proper civic attitudes or civic virtues and social responsibilities in liberalistic society. He commends the republican version as more positive and dynamic. He asserts that the republican citizen does not deserve the title if he only counts the rights without performing his duties. The republican citizenship has the characteristics of a sense of community, a sense of loyalty, zealous participation in civic duties, and a sense of responsibilities.

Albala-Bertrand (1995) shares Heater's views on the characteristics of republican citizenship. He contends republican citizenship also has three principles: sense of belonging to a political community; loyalty towards the homeland; and the predominance of civic duties.

2.2.3. *Multiple citizenship, supranational citizenship and global citizenship*

A host of concepts of citizenship developed beyond liberal citizenship, such as post-national citizenship (Habermas, 1994), multiple citizenship (Heater, 1992), supranational citizenship (Ravazzolo, 1995), and global citizenship (Falk, 1994). As much as the concepts of classical citizenship and liberal citizenship were reflective of their historical contexts, these new concepts of citizenship, responded to major changes in the social, economic and political circumstances in Europe and other parts of the world. The political changes in late twentieth century in Europe caused new

challenges to the traditional concepts of citizenship and the concept of national identity as Habermas (1994) stated:

First, the issue of the future of the nation state has unexpectedly become topical in the wake of German unification, the liberation of the East Central European states and the nationality conflicts that are breaking out throughout Eastern Europe. Second, the fact that the states of the European Community are gradually growing together, especially with the impending *caesura* which will be created by the introduction of a common market in 1993, sheds some light on the relation between nation state and democracy, for the democratic processes that have gone hand in hand with the nation state lag hopelessly behind the supranational form taken by economic integration. Third, the tremendous influx of immigration from the poor regions of the East and South with which Europe will be increasingly confronted in the coming years lend the problem of asylum seekers a new significance and urgency. This process exacerbates the conflict between the universalistic principles of constitutional democracies on the one hand and the particularistic claims of communities to preserve the integrity of their *habitual* ways of life on the other (pp.2-3).

Habermas (1994) advocates that the economic change in Europe, for instance, the existence of European Community, the monetary integration, as a catalyst of supranational citizenship, brings tension between national identity and social integration. According to Beiner (1995), the differences in cultures, languages and

political systems, mass migration and economic integration in Europe jeopardized national identity. He perceives nationalism as

...typically a reaction to feelings of threatened identity, and nothing is more threatening in this respect than global integration. So the two go together, and although they push in opposite directions, both undercut the integrity of the state, and the civic relationship it defines (p.3).

Ravazzolo (1995) also shows her concern. In her paper entitled, *Human Rights and Citizenship*, she warns that “Any country that defines and grants citizenship, must consider both, its system of rights and protection and its capacity to face critical challenges arising from global complexity. This global complexity creates crucial problems inside the country and in international relations”. She further points out that the European’s citizen rights are not explicitly spelled out. “However, even if some rights are specified...social rights and also fundamental individual rights are only implicit. The duties of the European citizen are not defined. Nonetheless, this is the first attempt at a dissolution of national borders and the creation of a supra-national citizenship”. (1995, p.16) She therefore anticipates that the building of the European community is linked not only to economic integration but also to strengthening people’s participation in a common future.

The non-government organizations have a broader sense of global citizenship. For example, Oxfam sees global citizenship as a way of thinking and behaving. It is

about understanding the need to tackle justice and inequality, and having the desire and ability to work actively to do so. It is about valuing the Earth as precious and unique, and safeguarding the future generation (Young et.al., 2002). Falk (1994) identifies that there are at least four levels of global citizenship: first, the global citizens have an ideal to create a better world; second, there is a tendency towards global integration, especially economically; third, there is an adoption of a politics of impossibility based on the attitudes of necessity, for example, redesign of political choices is required on the basis of an ecological sense of natural viabilities, thus causing change in political behaviour; and finally, there is politics of mobilization, expressed by transnational militancy, and centering on the conviction that it is important to make 'the impossible' happen by dedicated action that is motivated by what is desirable, and not discouraged by calculations of what seems likely (p.132). In this sense, global citizenship is an ideal. Global citizens should be aware of the wider world and have a sense of their own role as world citizens and should respect and value diversity.

Habermas and Ravazzolo's statements remind us that consideration of human rights, collaboration and participation are the essential qualities in modern citizenship. Moreover, the existence of global citizenship also generates the problems of identity and respect for diversity. The conflict between global citizenship and national

identity becomes a hot debate in citizenship. Many governments and educators then consider active citizenship might help to relieve these problems.

2.2.4 *Active citizenship*

Notwithstanding, new and varied concepts of citizenship, one common expectation has recently emerged– active citizenship. The notion of active citizenship is rather elusive, as different nations have different interpretations. The Swiss notion of active citizenship differs from those of Germany and Britain. The final report of the Qualifications and Curriculum Authority (QCA) (1998) quotes David Hargreaves’ statement that “Active citizens are as political as they are moral; moral sensibility derives in part from political understanding; political apathy spawns moral apathy”. (p.10) The report gives further explanation of the full meaning of active citizenship; it is not only the participation in community services, because political participation should also be included.

According to Habermas (1994), German citizenship is “the package of civil rights and duties to generate an overall status of a similar kind”, while the Swiss citizenship “has its reference point in the problem of societal self-organization and at its core the political rights of participation and communication”. He further points out that “the legal institution via which the individual member of a nation takes part as an active agent is the concrete nexus of state actions”. (p.25)

de Winter (1997) advocates the importance of active citizenship in the development of citizenship that “The more young people find themselves in the position of social outsiders, the less reason they have to feel committed to society”. (p.vii) In light of this, active citizenship involves civil, social, as well as political participation. It is a channel to nurture good and committed citizens.

2.3 CITIZENSHIP IN BRITAIN

The study of British citizenship will be helpful in understanding the development of Hong Kong citizenship. Hong Kong had been under the governance of the British Government for more than a century till July 1, 1997. If citizenship is a relationship between an individual and a state involving the individual's full political membership in the state and his permanent allegiance to it, then the validity of this definition should be questioned because political citizenship of Hong Kong citizens was removed in 1981 when the British Nationality Act specifies who is a British citizen. Hong Kong citizens became overseas nationals in only, and did not have the right to reside in England.

2.3.1 Emphasizing rights

In general, British citizenship is grounded on Marshall's classical theory on citizenship published in 1950. This is evident from the quotation of Marshall's

definition of citizenship in *Encouraging Citizenship – Report of the Commission on*

Citizenship as follows:

A status bestowed on all those who are full members of a community. All who possess the status are equal with respect to the rights and duties with which that status is endowed. There is no universal principle that determines what those rights and duties shall be, but societies in which citizenship is a developing institution create an image of an ideal citizenship against which achievement can be directed... The urge forward along the path thus plotted is an urge towards a fuller measure of equality, an enrichment of the stuff of which the status is made and an increase in the number of those on whom the status is bestowed... Citizenship requires a ... direct sense of community membership based on loyalty to a civilization which is a common possession. It is a loyalty of free men endowed with rights and protected by a common law. Its growth is stimulated both by the struggle to win those rights and by their enjoyment when won. (1990, p.5)

According to the above statement, “all those who possess the status are equal with respect to the rights and duties”,

Marshall’s theory of citizenship consists of three elements, namely civil, political and social. These three elements, however, did not exist in the same period. They were developed in three successive centuries: civil rights in the eighteenth, political in the nineteenth and social in the twentieth.

The civil element is composed of the rights necessary for individual freedom – liberty of the person, freedom of speech, thought and faith, the right to own property and to include valid contracts, and the right to justice. The last is of a different order from the others of equality with others and by due process of law. This shows us that the institutions most directly associated with civil rights are the courts of justice.

By the political element I mean the right to participate in the exercise of political power, as a member of a body invested with political authority or as an elector of the members of such a body. The corresponding institutions are Parliament and councils of local government.

By the social element I mean the whole range from the right to a modicum of economic welfare and security to the right to share to the full in the social heritage and to live the life of a civilized being according to the standards prevailing in the society. The institutions most closely connected with it are the education system and the social services. (Marshall 1950, pp.10-11)

Marshall's statements briefly described the development of citizenship in Britain. However, young people's perception of citizenship seemed to be fixed in the aspect of civil rights such as 'the right to express views without being in jail or shot', 'duties to pay taxes and abide by the law', 'the right not to be molested', 'the right not to be murdered.' (Fogelman, 1991, p.8).

Marshall's civil right element was well received by the Commission on Citizenship, 1990. The report of the Commission on citizenship *Encouraging*

Citizenship is based on Marshall's theory of citizenship, but stresses on the reciprocal right and duties of citizens. The rights it spelt out in the report are:

- Rights are a set of entitlements
- Rights are necessarily individual
- Rights are residual entitlement
- Rights include social rights

On the other hand, the Commission also specifies that the British citizens have duties to respect the law, to pay taxes, and to serve on juries (Commission on Citizenship, 1990, p.6-7). To fulfill these rights and duties, the Commission encouraged 'active citizenship':

Firstly, that society is in general best organized through participation and mutual education, both in terms of efficiency and in terms of eventual outcome. The participation of citizens in their society is both a measure and a source of that society's success: democracy and involvement are not, and should not be, reducible to the narrowly political, but concern the very 'business of life'. Secondly, that citizenship is not only about formal rights, but also about the everyday participation in our society; and not about our own rights, but also about the rights of others. It is this conception of citizenship as both theory and practice that we wish to encourage.

(Commission on Citizenship, 1990, p.42)

2.3.2 Emphasizing Responsibility

Crick (2000) criticized this report for paying too much attention to the social

participation perspective of 'active citizenship' while ignoring the importance of 'political citizenship'. He says,

“...Perhaps they took political citizenship for granted ..., but certainly there was marked tendency at that time to take over the term 'active citizenship' to mean only, or mainly, civic spirit, citizens' charters and voluntary activity in the community; but not how individuals can be helped and prepared to shape the terms of such engagements... So a workable definition must be wide, not because it aims to be all things to all men, but because it must identify and relate all three of Marshall's dimensions, not to call any one of them on its own true 'active citizenship'. Active citizenship should be interaction between all three”.

(2000, pp.7-8)

As one of the members of the European Community, Britain naturally has to consider the idea of global citizenship. Paragraph 3.15 of the *Education for citizenship and the teaching of democracy in schools* says, “an explicit idea of multi-cultural citizenship needs to be formulated for Britain... Majorities must respect, understand and tolerate minorities and minorities must learn and respect the laws, codes and conventions as much as the majority”. (QCA, 1998, pp.17-18).

To conclude, in the millennium era, the concept of citizenship in Britain has transformed from the historical republican to a liberal concept, with some rather tentative moves towards active, global and multi-citizenship. Nevertheless, the UK remains formally opposed to a joint constitution for all EU member states.

2.4 CONCEPTS OF CITIZENSHIP IN CHINA

Hong Kong returned to China on 1 July 1997. In the past, politically China was not open to the outside world and under Hong Kong by-laws, teachers were not allowed to discuss political affairs in the classroom. Hong Kong citizens did not have much knowledge about citizenship in China, though geographically China is so close to us. Many Hong Kong citizens were anxious about their citizenship status in the 1990s, particularly after the June 4th incident in Tiananmen Square in 1989. It will be helpful to study citizenship in China before designing my research project on citizenship education.

2.4.1 Concepts of citizenship in the Traditional China

According to Weber (1927), ‘the notion of citizen is unknown to the world of Islam, and to India and to China (p.316).’ Did citizenship really not exist in ancient China? It is true that the terms ‘citizen’ and ‘citizenship’ do not formally appear in any document until 1953 but the concept of citizenship was instilled in China several thousand years ago. Moreover, as defined by Heater (1997), citizenship is a relative term. In the history of China, the emperor called his people ‘subjects’ or ‘nationals’, not ‘citizens’. Let us study whether or not there was citizenship in ancient China through the characteristics of citizenship. If citizenship was a status, a privilege for a small group of people, then citizenship also appeared in ancient China. In West

Chou (also spelled as Zhou) Dynasty, only a limited group of people had privileges such as land ownership. This special group had status in society. Similar to the ancient Greeks, women in ancient Chinese society did not have any status. They were always in an inferior status, they did not enjoy freedom as the men did. Another point that illustrates the sense of citizenship appeared in ancient China was election. Many people had a misconception that elections did not exist until today. Though the Chinese could not elect their leaders in ancient China, elections existed in the local community, for example, the elders of the villages were elected by their peers. Unlike the Greek citizens who were involved in decision-making on public policies, the privileged group in ancient China were required to be totally obedient and loyal to the emperor and had no right to decide on policy making. However, they could give opinions. The privileged group in ancient China was usually knowledgeable because they had opportunities to receive education.

Table 2.2 shows the differences and similarities of the characteristics of citizenship between ancient Greece and ancient China, the period of West Chou Dynasty (c. 1100 – 771 B.C.).

Table 2.2 A Comparison between citizenship in ancient Greece and ancient China

<i>Citizenship in Ancient Greece</i>	<i>Citizenship in Ancient China</i>
• It was a privilege	• A limited group of people enjoyed special privilege
• It was a status which was inherited	• The special group had status
• Not all the residents in Greece had the same right of possessing property; women, children, resident foreigners, slaves and the peasantry of the rural areas were not included.	• Rights were not equal to all residents. Women, children, foreigners, slaves and peasants did not have rights.
• Citizens had the franchise right: to vote and to be voted	• There was no franchise right but elders were elected by peers in the rural areas or villages.
• Citizens were involved in public policy decision-making	• Policy decision was made by the ruler, but the privileged group could give opinions.
• Citizens had to pay tax	• Non-privilege group also had to pay tax, such as peasants, businessmen. This is similar to the reign of Emperor Caracalla who included all people living in the Roman Empire for taxation.
• Citizens had to be loyal and patriotic	• Loyalty had long been the virtue of Chinese in history
• Citizens should be knowledgeable	• Relatively speaking, the privileged class was more knowledgeable than the non-privileged class because they had opportunity to receive education

If ‘rights’ is the only criterion in defining citizenship, it is difficult to find such a concept in ancient China. As described by Zhou (1994), the first advocate of rights existed in the Confucius period (551-470 B.C.). Before that, the people had few rights: “...in the social system of slavery, neither the enslaved nor the slave owners had the slightest sense of ‘rights’” (p.84). In fact the terms ‘citizen’ and ‘citizenship’

first appeared in China in 1953 in the constitution of the People's Republic of China (PRC).

However, the notion of citizenship existed in China for many thousands years from the perspectives of citizens rights and duties. In ancient China, class status existed since there was history. Not all people had the right to own properties, to receive education, and to have the franchise; only a special group of people, could enjoy these rights. Some of the rights were even inherited. Describing the lineage system in West Chou Dynasty, Ebrey (1991) states that

“the royal lineage and the descent groups of the feudal lords and patricians always had a main line of successive heirs... In theory, neither descent group nor families had much family property at their disposal. Patricians had fiefs or offices with attached lands, which commonly passed to heirs... but these privileges were not supposed to be private property, to be sold or divided, but political responsibilities undertaken by family lines with the concurrence of their lords. Younger sons could remain dependent on the main line, get their own fiefs or offices from the lord, or travel elsewhere in search of employment”. (pp.53-54)

Ebrey's (1994) statement implies some people had special status and rights, and some of the rights were inherited in Chou dynasty. Zhou in his article on human rights, also argues that there was a class system in West Chou and some people enjoyed more rights than others. He says, “During the West Chou (also XiZhou)

period, in which Confucius was living, social institutions including schools characteristically observed a class distinction and hierarchy, not only between slaves, the masses, and the nobles but within the ruling class". (p.84) In relation to the right to vote or to stand for election, though franchise system was not practised in ancient China, in rural areas and villages, elders were selected by their peers. In these villages, the villagers had a very strong sense of identity. This sense of regional identity is also a characteristic of 'citizenship', further illustrating how it operated in ancient China.

2.4.2 Emphasizing duties and responsibilities

One of the duties of Greek citizens was they had to pay tax. Taxation system also existed in China, but this was not only for the privileged class. History in China recorded that even the non-privileged class – peasants had to pay tax. Conversely, the privileged class might be exempted from some kinds of taxes. Loyalty was another significant feature of Chinese citizenship. Chinese subjects, for long, had shown their loyalty and obedience to their lords; in particular, Confucius's philosophy of loyalty to the emperor greatly influenced the Chinese people for many centuries.

Another illustration of citizenship in ancient China is citizens should have civic virtue. Confucius, the great philosopher and educationist in China, taught humanities and moral behaviour. His *Great Learning* aimed to cultivate and develop

moral selves, to purify the people, and to reach supreme excellence (Li, 1990). In demonstrating civic virtues, Chinese people were showing characteristics of citizens described in western literature.

2.4.3 *Concepts of citizenship in China today*

The political status of citizenship in China was not specified until the recent decades. Sun Yet Sen declared the “Three Principles of the People” (San Min Zhuyi) when Republic of China was established. These three principles were: nationalism (minzu), democracy (minquan) and livelihood/welfare (minsheng) (Wikipedia) (Encyclopedia Britannia, 1998). However, Gong (et.al) (2000), stipulated in his *Contemporary Civic and Moral Education* that the term ‘citizen’ and ‘citizenship’ first appeared in China after the establishment of the People’s Republic of China in the 1953 electoral law. The term ‘citizen’ was used in the four subsequent versions of the nation’s constitution. For example, in the latest 1982 constitution Chapter II *The Fundamental Rights and Duties of Citizens* stated clearly what rights and duties citizens could enjoy and should perform. Thus, Article 33 says, “All persons holding the nationality of the People’s Republic of China are citizens of the People’s Republic of China. All citizens of the People’s Republic of China are equal before the law. Every citizen enjoys the rights and at the same time must perform the duties prescribed by the Constitution and the law”. These rights and duties comprise the

dimensions of individual, civil, political, social. For instance, in the individual dimension, Chinese citizens have personal freedom and religious freedom. In civil dimension, Chinese women enjoy equal rights with men in all spheres of life. In political dimension, Article 34 granted citizens the right to vote. Article 41 states that “Citizens of the People’s Republic of China have the right to criticize and make suggestions to any state organ or functionary”. In social life, marriage, the family, and mother and child are protected by the state. Like many countries, patriotism and loyalty are demanded in the constitution. Citizens have the responsibility to safeguard the unity of the country and the unity of all its nationalities.

Many people comment that the Chinese concept of citizenship is collectivist, unlike the west which is individualistic. Lee (2001a) disagrees about collectivism. He makes use of Turner’s classification of self, namely, individualism, individuality and individuation to debate that the Easterns (Chinese) are concerned about the fulfillment of the individuality’ by the examples of

“...the internal qualities of the self that provides a parameter for the self to make wise decisions, with rational tools such as reflective thinking and autonomous personality. Such an axis is fundamentally important for processing rational thinking and making rational choices... To the Eastern citizens, it does not matter who rules and in what way the country is ruled, as far they are in a situation where they can live their live, they can maintain their relationships, and they can pursue their individuality... if

their individuality is threatened, they would react and to an extreme extent revolt... rather than talking about politics, citizenship education in the East talks about morality... many Asian countries would tend to focus on the development of individuality... and relations..., in citizenship education".
(pp.6-7)

In the early People's Republic of China (PRC), citizenship was comprised of the "Five Lovings": loving the country, loving the people, loving work, loving science, and loving public property. Patriotism was emphasized. Socialist thoughts and training were developed in schools (Government of People's Republic of China, 1986). All these virtues were basically initiated from the needs of Chinese society in that period. At that time, PRC was established for a short period. The whole country was in urgent need of solidarity, therefore, loving the country and loving the people were placed in the top priority. With regard to loving science, as China had experienced many years of unrest, wars and battles, knowledge of science and technology was far behind other countries. In order to catch up with the modern world, the government encouraged people to love science. However, during the ten years of the Cultural Revolution, the five lovings were put aside. The major activities in that period, according to Li (1990) were "the denunciation of the bourgeoisie and shouting slogans such as "Rebel against and seize power from superiors who are taking the capitalist road"...Traditional thoughts advocated by Confucius were

completely denied, being regarded as feudal”. (p.159)

The current emphases in citizenship in China are ‘unity’, ‘integration’, ‘national identity’ and ‘citizen morality’. These notions are illustrated in Xu’s (2000) *Forward for Contemporary Civic and Moral Education*, he says:

Firstly,...citizenship morality aims to acquire an integration of differentiation and uniformity. Secondly,... citizen morality is an integration of equality and inclusion. Thirdly, ...citizen morality is the dialectical integration of the individual morality and the social morality. Fourthly, citizenship reveals the relationship between the individual and the nation. In citizenship morality, it should include all the morality rights and duties prescribed by the law of the nation. So citizenship morality is an integration of morality right and duties. (My translation from Xu, 2000, pp.2-3)

The traditional concept of citizenship in China stresses citizenship morality more than citizen rights. However, Lee’s study of citizenship development in China may be used to summarize the conceptions of citizenship in China. As Lee (2005) reveals, China’s conception of citizenship mainly emphasizes “citizen’s participation in civic affairs, the public good over individual benefits, collectivity over self-interest, and responsibilities over rights...The mention of collectivity over individuals is not only social but also political. However, with the opening up of the economy, there is an implicit version of liberal citizenship being developed” (p.278).

2.5 CONCEPTS OF CITIZENSHIP IN HONG KONG

As mentioned in the first part of this chapter, the concept of citizenship is unclear to Hong Kong people. This concept was particularly blurred and complicated during the colonial period. Ghai (2001) says that “there was no developed notion of citizenship during the colonial period” (p.155). Lo (2001) also criticizes that ‘citizenship was weak in Hong Kong for most of the colonial period.’ The reasons for the weak and unclear notion of citizenship of Hong Kong residents can be analysed as follows:

In the first place, Hong Kong “citizens” in the colonial period, in fact, were subjects not citizens, hence the concept of citizenship was weak. Ghai (2001) explains the differences in meanings of these two terms. He says, “A subject has few political rights or entitlements... A citizen has rights and entitlements, which vest him or her with dignity and autonomy. Colonized people are by definition subjects, but decolonization does not necessarily transform them into citizens, formal provisions for it notwithstanding” (p.144). The limited rights of subjects was made transparent by the amendment of the British Nationality Act in 1981. The right to settle in UK of the Hong Kong Chinese who were British citizens was taken away. This group of people was then known as British Dependent Territories Citizens (BDTC). Such a decision pleased the PRC Government because dual nationalities is

not accepted in China. The status of BDTC was later replaced by British Nationals (Overseas) in the Joint Declaration .

Secondly, as mentioned by Lee (2001) that in the East it “does not matter who rules and in what way the country is ruled, as far they are in a situation where they can live their lives, they can maintain their relationships... they will live with whatever the rule is, unless the situation has become intolerable” (p.6). Similarly, Ghai’s opinion on the traditional Chinese view of the ideal relationship between the government and people is more or less the same as described by Lee. He quotes the statements of the Hong Kong government in 1966 to support his view, ‘the people must impose their full trust and confidence in their rulers... this traditional concept does not contemplate the direct participation of the population in the organization or processes of government” (2001, p.154). Lo (2001) cites Pye and Solomon (1971) to explain this scenario, “Confucianism encouraged a ‘submissive’ attitude towards authority, and a ‘paternalistic’ view of government” (p.128). Their opinions exactly describe the attitude of Hong Kong people in citizenship. Hong Kong people, in general, do not care whoever rules Hong Kong. What they demand is social stability and economic prosperity.

Thirdly, as pointed out by Lau (1981) that Hong Kong people’s concept of citizenship was ‘utilitarianistic familism’ which means an individual would place the

interest of his family above the interests of society or any other individuals or groups. His familial interest is always in the primary consideration. Furthermore, Lau says, “among the familial interests, materialistic interests take priority over all other interests” (p 201). Therefore, Lau contends that Hong Kong people value economic prosperity and social stability over social justice. These concepts, in fact, are the expectations of both the colonial government and the SAR government. Therefore, Hong Kong people were satisfied with Deng Siu Peng’s promises, i.e. ‘horses will race as usual and the people will dance as usual’ and ‘fifty years unchange’.

Lo described the Hong Kong Chinese that “the apathy of the people of Hong Kong and their passive acceptance of the decisions of the administration is more appropriate to a rural backwater than a thriving industrial metropolis” (2001, p.128). Many Chinese in fact, treated Hong Kong as their temporary homes in the early colonial period. They expected to return to their own hometown after the Second World War.

Fourthly, according to Lo (2001), another reason for the apathetic attitude towards citizenship of the Hong Kong people was the Hong Kong Chinese valued the civil liberties they enjoyed. Regarding the characteristics of citizenship, viz. rights and responsibilities, Hong Kong Chinese had limited citizenship rights before 1982. However, they were pleased with these limited rights. Lo (2001) describes the

scenario as "...the British overall provided not only a legal framework protecting individual and property rights but also an efficient administration whose performance was considered satisfactory by the majority of Hong Kongers. Hong Kongers cherished the values of free speech and free press, and most importantly the British common law system" (p.129). Still today, these are what Hong Kong people are eager to possess.

Fifthly, Hong Kong people did not enjoy any right to a franchise before 1982. In fact, the relationship between the citizens and government was aloof until the riot in 1967. The colonial government then began to realize that there should be a closer link between the government and the people. Therefore, a democratically based electoral system was opened to the Urban Council – a body responsible for cultural and recreational activities. The first election for Legislative Councillors was in 1985. However, Hong Kong people's apathetic attitude to politics displayed clearly that out of 440,000 eligible citizens, only around 34,300 registered in the election, and only 6000 of them voted.

This aloof attitude changed after the June 4th incident in Tiananmen Square in 1989. Over one million Hong Kong residents joined the parades and demonstrations. This incident changed the concept of the Hong Kong residents concerning citizen rights and responsibilities. The concept of citizen right was further developed when

the franchise right was extended in 1992. Speeding up democracy was Chris Patten's agenda when he became the governor of Hong Kong. He also reduced the voting age from 21 to 18. The voting percentage for the election of legislative councillors was greatly raised. Some newspaper commentators explained this scenario as the psychological effect of the 1989 incident. People were afraid that the liberties they enjoyed would be lost. Patten's idea of experimenting with the concept of participant citizenship in Hong Kong infuriated PRC officials. (Lo, 2001, p.135) Patten was regarded as the enemy of the PRC. This incident illustrates the diverse concepts of citizen rights between Britain and China. Patten's agenda in Hong Kong was to speed up democracy in Hong Kong so that the British government could leave Hong Kong with honour and glory. However, the PRC government thought that democracy in Hong Kong should be developed gradually. An abrupt change would probably bring detrimental effects. Too quick development in democracy would not be a benefit to Hong Kong. For the Hong Kong people, only about half of the population supported an extension of democracy and the other half was on the side of the PRC government.

To guarantee that stability still remained in Hong Kong after 1997, the Sino-British Joint Declaration committed all the rights previously enjoyed by the Hong Kong residents in 1984, including the guarantees in two key international rights:

the right to move around and freedom, and the Basic Law which lists a number of rights such as the freedom of expression, the right to equality, the right to travel abroad, the right of association and assembly, procession and demonstration, personal liberty, religion and conscience, the protection of the legal process and fair trial, etc. These rights provide the basis of an engaged and activist citizenry (Ghai, 2001, pp.158-159). As a matter of fact, active political participation had been encouraged by Hilton Cheong-leen as early as the 1960s while he was the Chief Councillor of the Urban Council. Mr Cheong-leen's suggestion had not caused any stir because Hong Kong people were satisfied with the freedom and liberty they enjoyed in that period.

Now, after 1997, this apolitical attitude is still evident in Hong Kong society. On one hand, people make use of their citizen rights by demonstrations or processions, and protests, but all these voices are mainly concerned with self-interest, and standard of living. On the other hand, only a weak voice is heard on political issues. Is this because Confucian values like 'submissive attitude' and 'paternalistic' towards authority in politics are still dominant in Hong Kong, or is because of 'utilitarianistic familism'? Is it possible that the people are fed up with the attitudes of the officials in the SAR Government, for instance, in seeking re-interpretation from the Standing Committee of National People's Congress on the issue of 'right of abode' and the revision of Article 23 in Basic Law that cause their apathetic attitude? Is it a

symptom showing that Hong Kong citizens do not have a strong sense of belonging and identity though many studies have illustrated that the sense of identity of Hong Kong citizens has increased since 1997 (Lee, 2002)? Whatever the reasons, the aloof and apathetic attitude of Hong Kong citizens indicates a need for sound citizenship education in Hong Kong.

2.6 THE QUALITY OF GOOD CITIZENSHIP

2.6.1 *Citizenship quality in ancient Greece and ancient Rome*

From the above writings on the development of citizenship in different eras and in different countries, we understand that there are prerequisites for the entitlement of citizenship. These requisites enable the citizens to perform well, thus, they are the qualities of good citizens. Dynneson (1992) defines the good citizen as “a label commonly used to describe people who consistently do the right thing according to a formal or informal list of values and behaviours” (p.55). Different eras and different countries have different requisites of good citizens. For example, in ancient Greece, a good citizen must be knowledgeable, and at the same time must possess the virtue of being willing to serve. These qualities were crucial to a Greek citizen because without good knowledge, the Greek citizen could not take up his duties such as being a judge in a trial or a juror in court; he also could not make wise and appropriate

decisions in policy-making for the city-state.

Plato (1954) perceived good citizens as “the ones who have cultivated the goodness of an ordinary citizen – what is called self-control and integrity – which is acquired by habit and practice, without the help of philosophy and reason” (p.108). Aristotle also supported the requirement of self-control in ancient Greece. Aristotle (1946) defined the good citizen as someone who lived in harmony with the constitution. He further argued that loyalty, responsibility and respect for political and social procedural values were also the basic qualities of good citizen (p.193). Loyalty was important in ancient times because it was a sign of pride and honour to be a member of one’s country. It was also a way to strengthen the sense of belonging and solidarity. However, Habermas (1994) quotes the example of German unification as the sense of identity does not derive from common ethnic and cultural properties but from participation when he performs his civil rights. For responsibility, a good citizen should intelligently understand and accept his duties and moral obligations with pleasure. A responsible citizen would actively participate in his duties. In the process of active participation, the citizen would become a better person. As Heater (1992) advocates, “civic participation enhances autonomy and altruism: autonomy from self-government; altruism from judging the interests of the community” (p.200). The qualities of a good citizen in ancient times can be

summarized as having: knowledge, self-control, and loyalty, being participative, responsible, and sharing respect for social and political procedural values. These qualities are also in need in the present days.

2.6.2 *Citizenship quality Today*

Gross and Dynneson (1991) define a good citizen as one who “cares about the welfare of others, is able to challenge and critically question ideas, proposals and suggestions, and, in light of existing circumstances, is able to make good choices based upon good judgment” (p.4). These qualities, too, are essential in the new millennium in which the connections among countries are closer than before, issues are more complex, care and concern of others will promote peacefulness in the world, critical thinking can help us make good choices and judgment.

Kymlicka and Norman (1995) argue that the concept of citizenship integrates the demands of justice and community membership. However, a number of events in the last decade, for example, the resurgence of nationalist movements in Eastern Europe, the increasing voter apathy and long-term welfare dependency in the United States, the failure of environmental policies that rely on voluntary citizen cooperation, etc., have made clear that the uphold of democracy not only depends on justice but on the qualities and attitudes of citizens as well. Kymlicka and Norman (1995) sharply point out the qualities and attitudes of citizens include:

their sense of identity and how they view potentially competing forms of national, regional, ethnic, or religious identities; their ability to tolerate and work together with others who are different from themselves; their desire to participate in the political process in order to promote the public good and hold political authorities accountable; their willingness to show self-restraint and exercise personal responsibility in their economic demands and in personal choices which affect their health and the environment (p.284).

They concluded that if citizens do not possess these qualities, democracies will be difficult to govern and unstable.

Crick (2000) points out that ‘Good citizens will obey the law, but will seek to change it by legal means if they think it bad, or even if they think it could be better.’ He further spells out that the requisites of good citizen are: “Firstly, ... beginning socially responsible behaviour both in and beyond the classroom, both towards those in authority and towards each other. Secondly, learning about and becoming helpfully involved in the life and concerns of their school and their local communities, including through volunteering and “service learning”... Thirdly, pupils learning about how to make themselves effective in public life through knowledge, skills and specific values – what some have called ‘political literacy’” (pp.6-9). So, Crick, in response to the 21st century British citizenship, (that means active, global and multiple citizenship) contends that a good citizen must be an active, both in civil, political and

social, helpful, law-abiding citizen. Moreover, a British good citizen should also have critical thinking in order to make good choices.

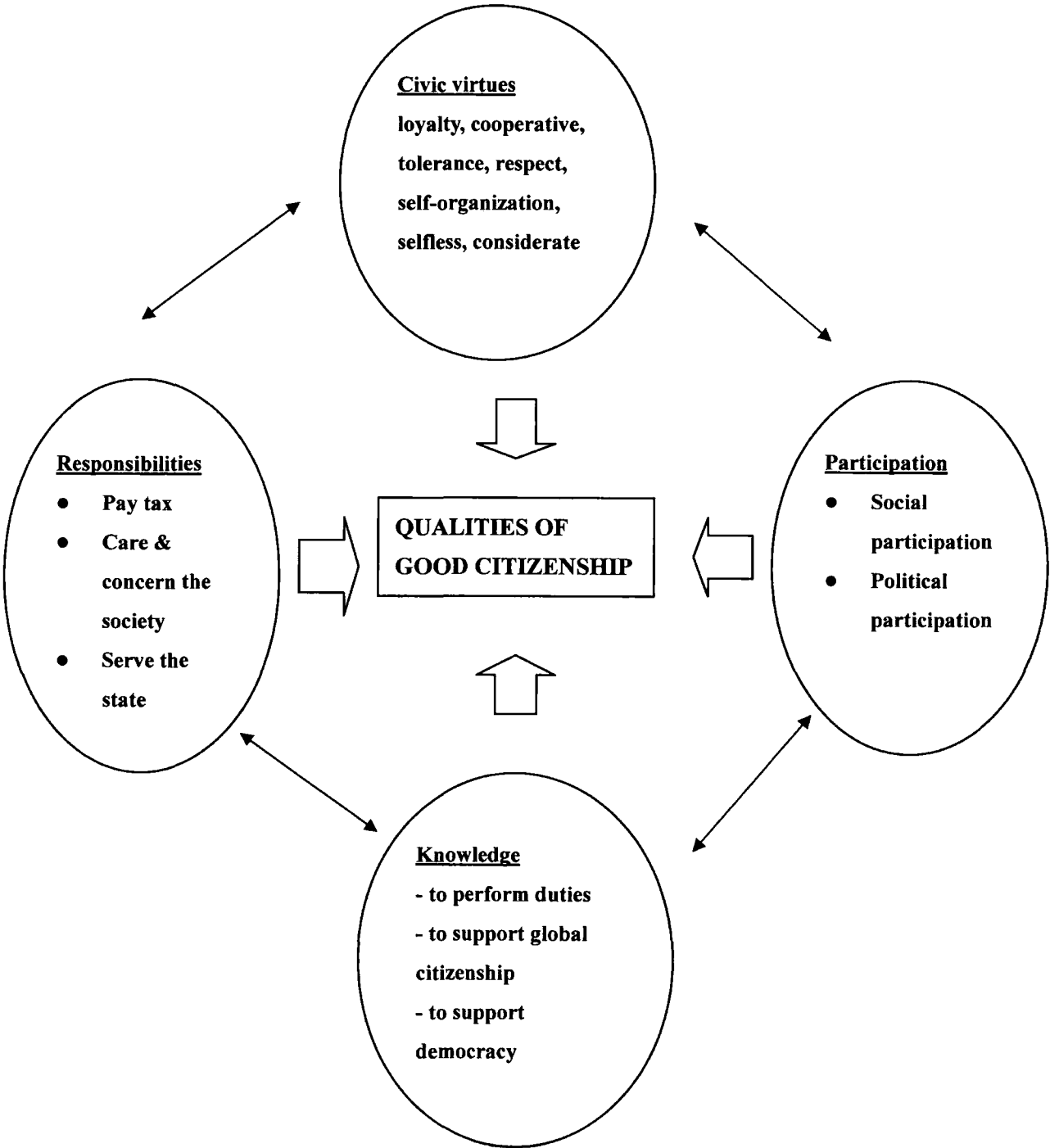
In 1990, the Republic of China in Taiwan distributed the educational goals for school citizenship programmes. These programmes are ethic-centred and moral-oriented, and uphold the four ethical principles (courtesy, righteousness, incorruptibility, and shame) and eight cardinal virtues (loyalty, filial piety, kindness, love, honesty, righteousness, harmony and peacefulness) (Lee, 2005, p.33). The qualities of good citizenship are summarized in diagram 2.3.

The qualities of good citizenship listed in the above diagram are in demand not only in other places, but also in Hong Kong. Hong Kong people have shown an aloof attitude towards citizenship since the colonial period. The first essential quality that citizens should embrace is social care and concern. Second is a participatory attitude in local, national and global affairs. For example, Hong Kong citizens could voice out their opinions on whether Article 23 in the Basic Law should be revised.

Another quality that Hong Kong citizens need is the attitude of collaboration. In contemporary society, when the whole world is talking about global citizenship, what we need is not only accepting an inclusive attitude, but also to work collaboratively with others, to show respect for others no matter how different from

our living styles.

Diagram 2.3 Qualities of Good Citizenship



When studying the development of the development of citizenship, attitudes such as loyalty, responsibility and participation are frequently mentioned as the qualities of good citizenship. The concept of responsibility is broad and comprises the civic virtues such as self-regulation, civic and social concern. Furthermore, a good citizen who possesses a strong sense of responsibility will work collaboratively with others and respect others. Therefore, the important qualities of good citizenship identified are participation; self-regulation; civic and social concern; respect for others; and collaboration.

2.6.2.1 Sense of identity

Many research results have illustrated that the Hong Kongers' sense of national identity is low in comparison with other cities in China such as Shanghai, Beijing, Guangzhou, etc. The political and education background of Hong Kong can explain these results. The lack of sense of identity reflects the apathetic attitude of Hong Kongers towards many political issues. As Hong Kong is now part of China, there is a need to strengthen the sense of national identity among our young people. The Curriculum Development Council (2001) stipulates that national identity is one of the five priority values to be strengthened in school civic and moral education and suggests schools should provide opportunities for students to develop their sense of belonging to China. In this sense, active participation in social and political matters

may help to develop a sense of identity.

2.6.2.2 Participation

As mentioned earlier, through the process of acting as a participative citizen, the individual becomes a better person. According to Heater (1990), ‘political participation, by shouldering some share of responsibility for decisions, is a crucial component of being a morally autonomous person (p.199).’ In fact, participation not only in political affairs, but also socially, will also help to develop a morally autonomous citizen. Kymlicka and Norman (1995) also point out that a good citizen should have “the desire to participate in the political process in order to promote public good and hold political authorities accountable” (p.284). de Winter (1997) reveals that participation will help deeper understanding of community, and thus will help develop sense of identity and belonging. In this sense, developing a participative attitude is a crucial quality of a good citizen.

2.6.2.3 Self-regulation

Self-regulation has close connection with individual responsibility. A good citizen should always be in control of himself or herself; that is what we call self-regulation. In fact, self-regulation is widely seen as a traditional Chinese moral value.

Civility implies self-regulation. Heater (1990) advocates that civility is a belief which affirms the possibility of the common good. He describes civility as “a civic

virtue expressed in action on behalf of the whole society....Civility is an attitude in individuals which recommends that consensus about the maintenance of the order of society should exist alongside the conflicts of interests and ideals” (p.202). A self-regulating citizen is a considerate person, who is civil and obeys the laws. Self-regulation is thus a quality of good citizenship.

2.6.2.4 Care and concern the society

As Crick (2000) points out, the fundamental quality of citizenship is to know the society well (p.7). If citizens do not care for their society, they will not participate actively in society. Hargreaves (1998) also asserts that active citizens’ moral sensibility derives from political understanding, and “political apathy spawns moral apathy” (p.10). Therefore, a caring attitude is a pre-requisite for development of active citizenship. This is also a crucial element of becoming a competent citizen.

2.6.2.5 Respect for others

In the 21st century, as the new concepts of supra-national and global citizenship emerge, and also the influx of refugees from other countries into Europe, social diversity has become a special feature in many European countries. Thus, the qualities of being a good citizen in Europe, as revealed by Osler (1995a), should be an ‘inclusive rather than exclusive understanding of national identity and citizenship (p.4).’ In other words, a good citizen should have respect for others, should be able

to tolerate others' differences such as clothing, religion, hobbies, etc. in order to maintain a peaceful society.

2.6.2.6 Collaboration

A good citizen has ability to work together with others who are different from himself.

Apart from the attitude of working with others, a good citizen must also have the ability to tolerate others, when facing differences in culture, nationalities, religion, beliefs, etc. In this regard, good citizens must have an open-minded attitude and be able to accept others. This quality is particularly essential with the emergence of global citizenship.

2.7 CONCLUSION

Different decades, and different states of citizenship development show that citizenship bears rights and responsibilities, though the citizens' rights differ from state to state, and time to time. It is essential to know that while we are enjoying our privileges, we have commitments at the same time.

Within the education system, one way to develop good citizenship is through citizenship education. What kind of citizenship education is likely to be most suitable and effective to Hong Kong schools? We turn to this question in the next chapter.

CHAPTER THREE

LITERATURE REVIEW (II) CITIZENSHIP EDUCATION: CONCEPTS AND APPROACHES

3.1 INTRODUCTION:

The last chapter shows the breadth and wealth of citizenship concepts in the literature. It should not be a surprise to find that there are great variations in how citizenship education is perceived, e.g. in terms of terminology, roles and functions, and teaching approaches. This chapter aims to uncover the diversity in understanding these various aspects of citizenship education.

3.2 DEFINITIONS OF CITIZENSHIP EDUCATION: TERMINOLOGICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Citizenship education seems to be a popular term used in the literature today (Cogan 2001; Lee et al., 2005). It had previously been expressed as civic education and/or civics for over at least the last fifty years. This denotes some shift in the field, perceiving citizenship education as a broader concept, involving both the formal and informal curriculum, and within and outside school teaching activities. It also denotes a preference for citizenship education to be more inquisitive and participatory, rather than the teaching of citizenship rights and responsibility, as well as political systems

and government functions which civics and civic education tend to focus upon. For example, according to Kerr (1999), the term ‘citizenship education’ refers to education for community understanding (in Wales) and education for mutual understanding and for cultural heritage (in Northern Ireland). According to Braungart and Braungart (1994), civic education has a close relationship with political education which is similar to political socialization, training students to fit into a political system and display conventional citizenship behaviour. Lo and Man (1996) argue that civic education has ‘the making of the conventional “good citizen” as its prime concern, while citizenship education “devotes more attention to the understanding of the rights and obligations of the citizens and to the exploration of ways for effective implementation” (p.xx).

Kennedy (1997) explains that civic education provides a knowledge base while citizenship education is a broader programme which is about the lives of people. He says,

“...the distinction between citizenship education and civic education is an important one -- the latter refers largely to formal programs of instruction while the former is broader and encompasses the multiple ways in which citizens are encouraged to pursue their roles in a democratic society” (1997, p.vii).

While the above analysis shows one type of distinction between civics and citizenship

education, Morris (1997) holds an opposite view. He perceives that civic education “[sic] stresses commitment to the state and/or a preconceived set of values, and one which stresses participation in public and social affair is one which is central to many attempts to analyse the purposes and approaches to civic education....Citizenship education, which stresses commitment to the status quo, focuses more on providing pupils with appropriate knowledge about the workings of the state, and stresses the responsibilities and duties of a model citizen” (p.108). In this sense, Morris contends that civic education stresses the relations between values and participation, while citizenship education has more emphasis on knowledge of the state and the attitudes of citizen.

In terms of the curriculum, Australia makes a deliberate division of the two terms in their curriculum, namely civics and citizenship. However, it is either called civic and moral education (in the case of Singapore), moral and civic education (in the case of Hong Kong), ideological and moral education/ideological and political education (in the case of China), moral education (in the case of Japan and Korea), and values education, personal and social education, and recently citizenship education (in the case of the United Kingdom).

Lee (2005) points out that language can be a very significant issue when

understanding concepts of citizenship, and how the citizenship curriculum is developed in Asian societies. For example, in the case of Hong Kong (as would be in the case of China, Taiwan, Japan and Korea, see Lee, 2005), the terms ‘civic education’ and ‘citizenship education’ are the same in Chinese characters. They are both translated as *gongmin jiaoxue* and they are used interchangeably in Hong Kong. According to the Education Department’s (1985) *‘Guidelines on Civic Education in Schools’*, civic education and citizenship education are even being considered equivalent to each other: “civic education is synonymous with education for citizenship” (ED, 1985, p.7).

The term citizenship education is seldom used in Mainland China, instead, terms such as moral education, civic education, political education or ideological education are commonly adopted. Lee (2002a) says, “In China, moral education is sometimes called ideological education or political education, and moral qualities are sometimes described as ideopolitical-moral qualities. These three terms are used interchangeably in the literature, and they are conceptually intertwined with one another” (p.5).

Wang (1991) defines civic education “as education of the citizens in ideology, morality and life at the primary stage of socialism” (my translation from Wang Yixiu, 1991). Therefore, civic education in China covers moralities, ideologies and

political education. These terms are used interchangeably.

In Hong Kong, the *Guidelines on Civic Education in Schools* published in 1985 (Education Department, 1985) explains the differences between civic education, political education, and political indoctrination. It says,

“The nature of politics is interpreted in different ways by different people at different times. Many in Hong Kong are well aware that Dr Sun Yixian defined politics as the management of public affairs. If this definition is accepted, then there is no point in trying to distinguish civic education from political education since civic education must essentially be political in nature. However, it would be worthwhile to try to differentiate between political education and political indoctrination” (Education Department 1985, p.7).

The curriculum document *Learning to Learn – The Way Forward in Curriculum Development* recently published by the Curriculum Development Council (2001), indicated that ‘moral and civic education’ is one of the four major tasks that the Education Department (now Education and Manpower Bureau) should focus on in the 21st century. The term ‘moral’ is placed before ‘civic’. In Hong Kong, most government documents have used civic education rather than citizenship education, but citizenship education and civic education are used interchangeably in schools nowadays. In China, the term citizenship education or civic education is rarely used. Instead, moral education, ideological education and political education appear

frequently.

The above review shows the varied interpretation of civics and citizenship education, as well as the difference in using the term civics and citizenship education in Asian languages, particularly Chinese. These differences will also affect the perception of role and function of citizenship education in different societies.

3.2.1 *The role of Citizenship Education*

Despite diversities in conceptions of citizenship and citizenship education, there seems to be more consensus as to what citizenship education should achieve. In summary, there are three major dimensions in relation to the role of citizenship: personal dimension, socio-political dimension and future dimension.

3.2.1.1 The personal dimension of citizenship education

The personal dimension of citizenship education is represented by the emphasis on personal and social education in England, character education in the United States, and psychological health education in China.

The comparative study of citizenship education across 16 countries illustrated that the promotion of citizenship in these countries is linked to the overall educational aim of developing well-rounded individuals and nurturing a person of integrity (QCA and NFER, 1999, p.4). Crick (1998) views citizenship education as an important agent to nurture decent citizens. This is echoed by his quotation of Hargreaves'

statement in defining citizenship education. Hargreaves (1997) states, 'Civic education is about the civic virtues and decent behaviour that adults wish to see in young people' (p.4).

In the United States, many scholars regard citizenship education as a tool to develop forms of knowledge and social practices, to train students to acquire skills such as inquiry skill, decision-making skill, to participate actively in the state, to uphold civic virtues, and ultimately, to reconstruct a better society. These anticipations are articulated by Dynneson, Gross and Nickel (1988) who argue that citizenship education, equips individuals with the knowledge, skills, and values that enable them to understand, examine, decide and participate in public affairs and in promoting the well-being of other individuals and of their society (p.8).

3.2.1.2 The Socio-political Dimension of Citizenship Education

Plato (1954) emphasized training in self-sacrifice for rulers and obedience for the ruled, while Aristotle emphasized that the style of preparation for citizenship must fit the style of government. Thus he asserted that,

“...for ensuring the stability of constitutions – but one which is nowadays neglected – is the education of citizens in the spirit of their constitution...the citizens [must be] attuned, by the force of habit and the influence of teaching, to the right constitutional temper” (Plato1954, p.233).

As described by Heater (1990), “the constitution was unique in ancient Greece

in requiring every youth of the citizen class to undergo the most rigorous, even brutal, training. From the age of seven, boys were subjected to a phased programme designed to mould them into obedient soldiers, who eventually in mature manhood could graduate to full citizenship. A liberal wielding of the whip and a judicious selection of patriotic songs assisted the process” (p.7). We can see that the pragmatic teaching and learning of citizenship education in Greece aimed to mould effective Greek citizenship. The content of Greek citizenship education is evidence that the style of citizenship education is in line with the style of government.

In America, democratic citizenship is emphasized in order to keep the debate over justice, freedom, and equality open; thus, citizenship education aims to equip the children with necessary knowledge and skills and to enable the young people to participate in the process of improving the society. As Engle and Ochoa (1988) stated, “citizens in a democracy must be able to judge the credibility of various claims to truth. They must be able to exercise independent judgment about social and personal affairs” (p.8). Gross and Dynneson (1991) also argue that the American public school system was given the mission of “educating students for political literacy, including fundamental subject areas and skills related to the political system and the promulgation of democratic values” (p.2).

Citizenship education to meet the needs of society is evident in the government guidance for citizenship in U.K. The sense of multicultural, multiethnic global citizenship was included in the government publication, entitled *Education for Citizenship* published by the National Curriculum Council in 1990. As Lister (1996) explains, there was a recognition of the need “to reconstruct citizenship in order to create a kind of citizenship appropriate to a society which was multicultural, diverse, pluralist and part of an interdependent world” (p.93).

Donaldson (1994) has another view on citizenship education. He emphasises the enrichment of knowledge on political and economic aspects. He says

“Citizenship education is not intended to develop an individual code of ethics in each citizen but it should perhaps encourage pupils and students to develop a range of views about the political and economic operation of the state” (p.17).

The aims and contents of citizenship education in different places show that citizenship education plays an important role in maintaining social morality. It is particularly clear in the government documents related to citizenship education in the People’s Republic of China.

Owing to the political change in Europe in the later stage of the twentieth century, the concepts of supra-national citizenship, multi-citizenship and global citizenship emerged. Lynch (1992) suggests that the citizenship education should recognize

three independent levels: local, national, and international, operating across four domains, namely social, cultural, environmental and economic. Osler (1994) argues that citizenship education for the twenty-first century should focus on human rights and democratic education which

“Encourages the development of an inclusive rather than exclusive understanding of national identity and citizenship. This revitalised view of education would promote an understanding of the rights and responsibilities of democratic citizenship not dependent on ethnic affiliation or identification but recognizing and supporting diversity both within and between societies. This view of education for active, participative citizenship might therefore acknowledge diversity, interdependence and differences in perception, and might approach areas of study from a variety of cultural perspectives, encouraging students to recognize shared values” (p.4).

Lo and Man (1996) support Emile Durkheim’s theory of citizenship education as “a major vehicle for establishing a moral code of social obligations and duties that congeals a cohesive society”, therefore, the role of citizenship education is “the cultivator of morality”, which was that set of duties and obligations that influenced the behaviour of individuals. (p. xiii)

3.2.1.3 The future dimension of future citizenship

Kubow, Grossman and Ninomiya (2000) contend the conception of multidimensional citizenship has a more holistic image of citizenship and citizenship education in the 21st century. Multidimensional citizenship comprises four key dimensions: the personal, the social, the spatial and the temporal (p.115). Cogan (2000) further

advocates that a multidimensional approach to citizenship education should be a new conception of citizenship education in the new century. He says that citizenship education should be:

...multidimensional, which, while including personal development, also includes a commitment to thinking and acting in ways that take account of local, national and global communities and their concerns. It is a conception which is based on dimensions of time, that is, it takes account of present problems in ways that respect the heritage of the past while also protecting the interests of the future. It is also spatial in nature, in that it acknowledges the different levels of community which must be taken into account as we face and attempt to resolve global problems and issues which are manifested in regional, state, provincial, and most certainly, local circumstances. (Cogan, 2000, pp.1-2)

As defined by Marshall (1950), the aim of citizenship education for children is to shape the future adult. Take the example of education for citizenship in ancient Greece. Since the Greek citizens had to undertake the duties of politicians, administrators, judges, jurors and soldiers in their society, the citizens were educated at home and at school in the necessary knowledge and skills for these duties. Their training was basically skill-oriented and practical. For instance, rhetoric and judgment skills were taught in order to prepare the Greek youths to perform their roles as politicians, judges and jurors. Their learning in civic education was mainly through practice; for example, the schools inculcated political understanding in the

minds of adolescents through drama which had very substantial political content; the Greek youths of fifteen years old attended the law-courts and other public places to observe the operation of the judicial and political systems and to listen to the debates of the elders. The Greek young men were also trained to defend the state by enrolling for a year of military service in the army. The active participatory approach in ancient Greece, perhaps inspired the development of citizenship education and is still discussed and explored nowadays.

Ichilov (1998) suggests that citizenship education is the preparation of young people for the future challenges and uncertainties of life in the rapidly changing world (p.267).

Gross and Dynneson (1991) further elaborate in their claim that citizenship education has a preventive function in cultivating good citizens for tomorrow's society. They say,

“citizenship education can serve several scholarly functions, including that of a barometer for measuring the extent to which a given society will go to preserve responsible action by citizens in relation to the perceived cultural values associated with the idea of the common good. In addition, it can serve as a kind of preventive action against the recognizable forces that work against the cohesion of the society or state. Finally, citizenship education can inspire those social, political, and/or economic movements that become identified as desirable goals in quest for a higher level of values which may

lead to a higher order of existence within a given society or state” (1991, p.5).

In that sense, Gross and Dynneson (1991) contend citizenship education can be used as a study of society and a channel to cultivate a responsible, law-abiding citizen.

Engle and Ochoa (1988) perceive citizenship education as a channel to nurture democratic citizens through the learning of how to engage in the political process and how to pursue power and influence in government (p.51). Therefore, according to their conception, citizenship education is education for democracy.

Though different educationists and scholars have different views on citizenship education, the ultimate aims of citizenship education are to prepare young citizens for life, no matter what style of government they live in and for the betterment of society.

3.3 CITIZENSHIP EDUCATION IN ENGLAND

3.3.1 *Concepts of citizenship*

The concept of citizenship education in England has changed from a system of training of obedient, passive well behaved, law abiding, and conforming citizens in the past to educate young people to be active and democratic citizens today (Lister, 1998). Taylor (1996) argues that the traditional emphasis of citizenship education in England was on personal, social and academic development of children (p.179). The following paragraphs illustrate the developments in citizenship education in different

periods in England.

3.3.1.1 Citizenship Education as Training for Obedient Citizens

Lister (1998) describes education in England in the early 1890s as having *less education* than *training*. Children were trained in the ‘three Rs’: Reading, Writing and Arithmetic. He criticizes citizenship education at that time as “lessons to create obedient and passive subjects, not active, democratic citizens” (p.256). Furthermore, there was dual system (of elite and mass institutions) in formal education in England. In 1918, citizenship education was for the elite class as the elite schools produced and provided leaders for the government, the army, the navy and the law. In that period, church schools played a role in moral education through Christianity (Lister, 1998). The distinctive role of church schools in moral education ceased when the Education Act of 1944 was passed. According to Taylor (1996), “the 1944 Education Act had been concerned that Religious Instruction should not be distinctive of any particular Christian denomination” (p.183).

Lister (1998) pointed out that citizenship education was not placed in an important place in the Education Act of 1944 as “Education had to come before “citizenship education”; the educational provision was divided and unequal, and in a polity which remained an exotic combination of monarchy, aristocracy and democracy” (p.256’). In short, Kerr (1999) comments that citizenship education in

Victorian times was “the promotion of duties associated with social standing”; and in the 1920s, it was about “the importance of understanding local and national communities” (p.206).

3.3.1.2 Citizenship Education as Political Education

In the 1960s and 1970s, citizenship education and political education were put together. Citizenship education was promoted by voluntary and non-governmental organization, for example, in the period 1967 - 74, the Programme for Political Education (PPE) was implemented. This Programme aimed to promote political literacy and democratic values for all secondary students.

Crick and Porter (1978) regarded a ‘citizen’ as ‘someone with the knowledge, attitudes and predisposition to be active in the polity – in ‘everyday life’. They advocated the importance of ‘political literacy’ in citizenship education which means people have to be kept well informed about politics, and to be able to participate in the community and society. However, political education remained for teachers ‘a low status: high risk’ activity because teachers had few extrinsic rewards compared with teachers of English, Mathematics and Science. In addition, where political education and citizenship education existed in schools, it had low status and was for less able students. The programme attracted opposition, for example from the head of a government commission on education; on the other hand, it had its supporters

from scholars, universities, etc.

Facing social and economic changes, the focus of citizenship education has also changed. It stressed individualism in the late 1980s. The then Prime Minister Margaret Thatcher remarked in the mid 1980s that '*there is no such thing as "society". There are men. And there are women. And there are families.*' Kerr (1999) explained that Thatcher's statement was the reflection of the success of individualism in a free market economy. Citizenship education still had a low status. It was only one of the dimensions proposed and was non-statutory. The low status of citizenship education as described by Lister (1998) suggested that, "teachers only might get round to citizenship education some time later" (p.262).

3.3.1.3 Educating for Active and Participatory Citizens

Political philosophers such as Dahrendorf (1990) asserted that the 1990s was the decade of citizenship. An emphasis on the importance of civic obligation or 'active citizenship' was placed in the 1990s citizenship education. Graham, the Chairman of the National Curriculum Council (1990) states in his forward to the *Curriculum Guidance 8 of Education for Citizenship* that "Education for citizenship is essential for every pupil. It helps each of them to understand the duties, responsibilities and rights of every citizen and promotes concern for the values by which a civilised society is identified – justice, democracy, respect for the rule of law".

However, Batho (1990) pointed out that the development of citizenship education did not flourish though periodical support was shown in government reports which offered guidance to schools. He said, “This guidance was tempered with caution that schools should stay clear of contentious areas, leading to a generally conservative approach to citizenship education” (p.91).

Though many scholars and educationists commented on the 1990 guidance, many of them expressed their views on the direction of citizenship education. For example, Richardson (1992) stressed the importance of decision-making skills in political understanding and participation. He said

Citizenship education is a body of knowledge to do with issues about which political decisions have to be taken, and with structures and processes of decision-making; there are key concepts for understanding political life; and there are key skills of political participation. (p.180)

Kerr (1999) summarizes the development of citizenship education in Britain and defines citizenship education in this way,

“Citizenship education is concerned with young people’s understanding of society and, in particular, with influencing what students learn and understand about the social world”.

He further elaborates that citizenship education in England

“...has been traditionally insular, largely devoid both of political concerns in contemporary society and of awareness of developments in other countries” (1999, p.205).

3.3.2 *The Purpose*

The Curriculum Guide '8' Education for Citizenship published by National Curriculum Council in 1990 describes citizenship education:

Education for citizenship embraces both responsibilities and rights in the present and preparation for citizenship in adult life. It helps pupils by supporting them as they develop from dependent children into independent young people.

When the political atmosphere changed in Britain in 1997, the new Labour Government had different views on citizenship education. Tony Blair perceived citizenship education as education to nurture individuals with a commitment to civic morality and to act as partners of the government and the state to practise its policies and missions. “The Labour Government is urging individuals to act as caring people, aware of the needs and views of others and motivated to contribute positively to wider society” (Kerr, 1999, p.207).

An ad hoc working group namely Advisory Group on Citizenship was established in 1997. The mission of the Advisory Group was “to include the nature and practices of participation in democracy; the duties, responsibilities and rights of individuals as citizens; and the value to individuals and society of community activity” in citizenship education. (QCA, 1998, p.4)

The emphases of citizenship education in Citizenship—the National Curriculum

for England (NCC, 1999) are civic morality, democracy and inclusiveness. These emphases were originally spelled out in the aims of citizenship education stated in the curriculum guide, *Education for Citizenship* published by National Curriculum Council (NCC) (1990) as follows:

Education for citizenship embraces both responsibilities and rights in the present and preparation for citizenship in adult life. It helps pupils by supporting them as they develop from dependent children into independent young people. It is of paramount importance in a democratic society and in a world undergoing rapid change. Schools must lay the foundations for positive, participative citizenship in two important ways:

- (i) by helping pupils to acquire and understand essential information;
- (ii) by providing them with opportunities and incentives to participate in all aspects of school life.

In sum, citizenship education in England has evolved and changed in recent decades. It has changed from a focus on training obedient and passive citizen in the early twentieth century, to an emphasis on educating for democratic, active and participatory citizens today. It emphasizes education for the preparation of young citizens through knowledge, necessary skills and values.

However, although the National Curriculum Council's (1990) *Education for Citizenship* placed strong emphasis on the provision of citizenship education in school, citizenship education was still not an independent subject. It was implemented as a

cross curricular theme. Subjects like social studies, geography, history, etc. shared the responsibility for implementing citizenship education. The objectives of citizenship education were subdivided into

- knowledge of the nature of community; roles and relationships in a democratic society; and the nature and basis of duties, responsibilities and rights
- cross-curricular skills
- attitudes
- moral codes and values.

The concepts of law abiding and conforming citizens and the purpose of developing independent young people were reflected in the contents of *Education for Citizenship Curriculum Guidance 8* (National Curriculum Council, 1990), for example, roles and responsibilities in a pluralist society; the duties, rights and responsibilities of being a citizen; the citizen and the law. Other essential components were also outlined such as the nature of community; the family; democracy in action; work, employment and leisure; and public services.

The 1990 curriculum received many criticisms. Jones and Jones (1992) criticized the government for using citizenship education to promote its own political values, with little on 'rights' but a lot on 'responsibilities'. They commented that "in

the guidance issued by the National Curriculum Council describing Education for Citizenship the word “rights” never appears on its own”. (1992, p.9) Wilkins (2000) comments that the notion of “active citizen” might seem self-evident, the citizen’s rights are reduced to mere consumer rights... the role of ‘good citizen’ is restricted to minimal public duties and the defense of private property” (2000, p.19).

A new citizenship curriculum entitled *Citizenship Education: An International Comparison* was jointly published by Qualifications and Curriculum Authority (QCA) and National Foundation for Educational Research in England and Wales (NFER) in 1999. The document stated clearly that this subject was cross-curricular:

These terms [citizenship education and civic education] include citizenship, civics, social sciences, social studies, world studies, society, studies of society, life skills and moral education. The area also has links to curriculum subjects and options, including history, geography, economics, law, politics, environmental terms and subject connections underlines the breadth and complexity of the issues addressed within this area. (p.2)

The new curriculum was based largely upon Marshall’s three strands of citizenship: the civil, the political, and the social. Marshall emphasized citizen’s rights, while the working group of this curriculum ‘stresses the need for a much greater reciprocity between rights and duties’ (Wilkins, 2000, p.20). The three dimensions in the new curriculum are:

1. social and moral responsibility

Some people query whether there will be overlap in the ‘social and moral responsibility’ dimension with Personal, Social and Health Education (PSHE) but Crick regards this dimension as promoting the essential preconditions of citizenship. Concepts like fairness, and attitudes to the law, to rules, to decision-making, to authority, to their local environment and social responsibility etc. are included.

2. community involvement

Involvement in the community and service to the community requires knowledge and skills, particularly political skill and civic responsibility. “...a concrete knowledge of what are community organizations, voluntary and official, local and national, will be required and treated as a child’s entitlement to know and to be given a chance to volunteer” (QCA, 1998, p.63).

3. political literacy

This is a term wider than political knowledge. “...not only knowledge of political and social institutions and ideas, but the skills, values and attitudes are needed for the practice of good citizenship in adult life... However, the knowledge component is large: again, national, and local political, economic and social institutions, the EU and other international commitments and concerns” (QCA, 1998, p.64). The working group believes this dimension encompasses “realistic knowledge of and preparation

for conflict resolution and decision-making related to the main economic and social problems of the day” (QCA, 1998, p.13).

Comparing the contents of the 1990 and 1999 citizenship education curricular, the former focuses on rights and responsibilities of a citizen and the role as a citizen whereas the latter emphasizes ‘active citizenship’ and morality. Moreover, to cater for the current needs, the 1999 curriculum stresses knowledge and values beyond self and local community; national and global levels are also included.

3.4 CITIZENSHIP EDUCATION IN CHINA

3.4.1 *The Concepts*

As mentioned earlier in this chapter, the term ‘citizenship education’ is in fact ‘moral education’ in China. Lister (1996) points out that “The Chinese tradition has been one of moral education, to promote a moral social order, and not of civic or political education as it might be understood in the British, French or American traditions” (p.85). Lee (2001a) asserts that

‘the definition of moral education, values education and political education in China is far from clear-cut...Moral education is referred to as ideo-political education or ideo-moral education, and is seen as a means of transmitting ideological and political values (p.37).’

The characteristics of citizenship education can be outlined as follows:

3.4.1.1 Confucian values

For thousands of years, Chinese people's thinking and behaviours have been deeply influenced by Confucius (551-479 BC) who stressed humanities and moral behaviour. In his opinion, moral education was more important and effective than government by law. In ancient China, people had to learn about six moralities, six virtues and six skills in schools. These six moralities, six virtues and six skills were the criteria for the elections for official positions during the West Chou Dynasty (c.1100 – 771 BC). The six moralities were: filial piety, friendliness, tranquillity of mind, kinship, tolerance and sympathy. While the six virtues were: knowledge, benevolence, saintliness, justice, loyalty and gentleness and the six skills were rituals, music, shooting, defence, reading and calculating (Li, 1990). This historical background explains why moral education is important in China.

Another reason why moral values are emphasized in citizenship education is the spreading of Confucian values throughout the different classes of Chinese society in these centuries. According to Hawkins, et al. (2001a), “the educational system played a powerful role in this expansion, particularly the memorization associated with the examination system...” (p.193).

One should note that Confucian values include Confucius and his followers such as Mencius and Xunzi. Mencius proposed that “citizenship education should be meant

for reinforcing the good nature, or only remedial for those whose goodness has gone astray”. On the other hand, Xunzi viewed the role of citizenship education as behaviour regulation (Lee, 2001a). However, despite having different concepts about citizenship education, the Confucian tradition sees the role of citizenship education as ‘the teaching of social order and proper behavior.’

3.4.1.2 Social morality

Li (1989) defines civic education as “an education that fosters students to become citizens with social morality, civilized habits and to be law-abiding”. He also mentions that ‘in 1923, the Curriculum Standardization Drafting Committee designed a new framework of civic education, focussing on self-discipline and moralities. In 1929, the curriculum of civic education changed to the study of “Party Doctrines” (Li, 1989, p.461).

Social morality can be fostered through model emulation (Lo and Man 1996) and through the examples of the traditional moral code ‘*Sanzijing*’ (The Children’s Primer in Three-character Lines) 三字經 and ‘*Ershi si xiao*’ (Twenty-four Filial Stories) 二十四孝. Lo and Man said, “Through these influential classics, the youths were urged to emulate the good deeds of people who were exemplary in their conformity to the established moral code. In contemporary China, such hero models as Lei Feng and, more recently, the *New Children’s Primer in Three-character Lines* carry with

them the same invitation to emulate approved models” (p.xv).

3.4.1.3 Patriotism

Citizenship education in the People’s Republic of China put less emphasis on the Confucian tradition. Rather, the basic concepts of her citizenship education as published in the recent official documents are: the Five Lovings: loving the country, loving the people, loving work, loving science, and loving socialism; Five Stresses: civilized behaviour, courtesy, hygiene, public order, and morals; and the Four Beauties: beautification of the mind, language, conduct, and environment (Lee, 1996; Li, 1990 and Li,1991). ‘Loving the country’ is placed in the first place among the five lovings. According to Zhao (1998), patriotism can promote solidarity and sense of belonging, and is the motivation of practising national modernization (p.216).

3.4.2 *Changing Emphases on Citizenship education*

Citizenship education in the People’s Republic of China is a tool of the government to convey the messages and implementation of government policies. This is reflected in the basic concepts listed above and the emphasis on moral values in different stages listed below. It is also a channel of the central government to rectify any inappropriate values.

3.4.2.1 Behaviour regulation

During the immediate period after denunciation of culture in the cultural revolution, in the early eighties, schools were seen as having the responsibility to rebuild and to rectify some moral values that had been destroyed during the Cultural Revolution. For example, the “Five Stresses and the Four Beauties”² were viewed as the moral qualities needed for socialist modernization (Hawkins, et al. 2001). Many of the Confucian values were brought back.

3.4.2.2 Tension between liberalization and control

During the years 1983-84, the PRC Government focused on personal qualities and behaviour to balance out the consequences of swift economic liberation and to maintain social stability. As a result, there was an anti-spiritual pollution campaign and the “Notice on Strengthening Ideopolitical Work in the Countryside” was issued in January 1983 to guide teachers and students to strengthen the ideopolitical work of PRC. It was further developed into a campaign for patriotic education.

The PRC Government had always been worried that the intrusion of western ideologies and liberation would cause social disruption and political instability. This worry resulted in August 1985 in a document addressing the issue of teaching ideological character and political theory in schools. The document *Notice on*

² Five Stresses and Four Beauties spelled out the moral qualities for the people to develop in the era of social modernization. The Five Stresses of behaviours were: civilized behaviour, courtesy, hygiene, public orders and morals. The Four Beauties were: mind, language, conduct and environment.

Referring and Strengthening Moral Education in Schools (CCP, 1985a) stipulates that the contents and demands of moral education should cover Five Stresses, Four Beauties, Five Lovings, and social ethics.

3.4.2.4 Emphasising openness and student initiatives

In line with the economic reform in the PRC, citizenship education was also reformed in 1988. The CCP (1988) State Education Commission published a “*Notice on Reforming and Strengthening Moral Education in the Middle Schools*” and the CCP Central Committee (1985a) issued a “*Notice on Reforming and Strengthening Moral Education Work in Primary and Secondary Schools*”. Both documents express clearly the emphasis on the spirit of openness and the opportunities for student initiatives. The “Outline” calls for the establishment of a principal responsibility system in moral education in schools. Schools could develop their own moral educational programmes according to their own needs. The document issued by CCP State Education Commission in August 1988 points out that

Different regions can continue with the moral education outlines they design themselves, and then gradually coincide with the State Education Commission’s “Outline” but at the same time retain regional characteristics [emphasis mine]. (p.10)

3.4.2.5 Impact of the Tiananmen Square Incident: Re-emphasis on Patriotism

The suppression of protesters in Tiananmen Square in 1988 known in Hong Kong as “the June 4 incident” resulted in the announcement of tightening of ideological control in 1990. The Central Committee requested the strengthening of patriotism, and an integration of collectivism and individualism in moral education in schools (Lee, 1996, 2002a).

The document, namely *Opinions on Strengthening and Improving the Party and Ideopolitical Works in Higher Institutes in New Circumstances* was published in August 1993, and suggested a reform in the moral education curriculum. This document suggested combining ideopolitical education with Marxist theory lessons. The new ideopolitical education, not only combines the teaching of Marxism and ideopolitical education, it also includes life education. According to Zhang (1995), it actually refers to ‘ideomoral cultivation’ (*sixiang diode xiuyang*).

Subsequent to this document, another important moral education document, entitled “Some Opinions on Strengthening and Improving Moral Education Work in School” was published in August 1994. This document called for the speeding up of educational reform to meet the needs of the new circumstances and to facilitate the psychological health of youth (para. 4). In the same year, another document entitled “An Outline for the Implementation of Patriotic Education” was published. These

two documents seemed to be competing against each other. However, as remarked by Lee (2002a):

“emphasis on patriotic education was actually itself a mark for depoliticisation, when compared with the emphasis on ideological education. ...as the patriotic education document began with remarks on socialist market economy, economic development, democracy, and modernisation, and there were calls for democratic and legal education. In this sense, the patriotic education document was an amplification of the previous document, which catered to the need for further openness and changing social circumstances” (p.19).

In sum, the concepts and goals of citizenship education in China changed according to the government policies in moral education which were described by Lee (1996) as *problem-oriented*. Citizenship education in China aims to cultivate nationalism, patriotism, responsible and obedient citizens and it is a means to maintain social and political stability.

3.4.3 *Citizenship Curriculum*

Apparently, the curriculum for citizenship education in the People’s Republic of China is devised or changed according to the government’s policy. Changes of emphasis in official moral education policies in China reflect shifts in ideology. In sum, three major stages of citizenship curriculum development can be identified in

China: before the cultural revolution, during the cultural revolution and after the cultural revolution.

3.4.3.1. Before the cultural revolution: emphasis on political ideology

Since the People's Republic of China was established in 1949, at the beginning stage of liberation, citizenship education in China was mainly about political ideology; socialist ideas were strengthened in order to fight against capitalist and feudal thoughts. Textbooks such as General Knowledge of Politics, A Brief History of Social Development, and General Knowledge of Dialectical Materialism were published and used in schools. Citizenship education in that period emphasized five lovings: love the country, the people, work, science and public property.

3.4.3.2. During the cultural revolution: political ideology plus student activism

The purpose of Cultural Revolution was to denounce bourgeois values and practices. Confucius and traditional thoughts were regarded as feudal and should be denied. According to Yuan (1998), "Scholars and teachers were implicated by being associated with Confucius. Intellectuals were suspected of being bourgeois" (p.4). Mao's words, including his three articles : 'The Foolish Old Man who removed the Mountains', 'In Memory of Dr Bethune' and 'Serve the People' were the teaching materials in primary schools. In secondary schools, subjects like Politics and Chinese Language were combined as one course with Chairman Mao's works as the

basic text. “Rebel against and seize power from superiors who are taking the capitalist road” was the main slogan of the Revolution (Li, 1990).

3.4.3.3. After the cultural revolution: emphasis on moral education (gradually separated from political education)

Changes in emphasis since 1977 are evident in the February 1981 document. This initiated a civilized courtesy campaign. The campaign specified certain moral qualities as essential for the realization of the Four Modernizations, namely, the “Five Stresses and the Four Beauties”.

Specific objectives for both elementary and secondary levels were specified in the Syllabuses for a Course of Study in Ideology and Morality. With respect to primary schools, thirteen points were specified. Students should:

- know they are Chinese, know the country’s name, the national anthem, who the main leaders are, and so on.
- Learn the name and location of one’s home village.
- Learn correct relationships with other people, such as parents, elders, each other.
- Learn the concept of collectivism.
- Learn how to treat others with warmth and courtesy.
- Develop good personal hygiene.
- Learn to be punctual.
- Obey rules of traffic.
- Learn the value of hard study.

- Learn to love work and labour, not be arrogant and lazy.
- Learn frugality in daily life.
- Learn to be courageous.
- Learn to confess mistakes and not lie, not to “covet small advantages” such as pocketing money they find on the playground (Quanrixhi, 1986).

At the intermediate and upper grade levels the emphasis shifts to developing social skills and acquiring a basic understanding of the law. Students should

- Learn about great figures of history and respect China’s national dignity.
- Understand diversity and that all groups in China should be respectful of each other.
- Understand that the People’s Liberation Army is the defender of the motherland.
- Understand that China should have friendly relations with the world and be courteous to foreigners.
- Respect parents and teachers.
- Respect other people.
- Learn about the collective.
- Cultivate good learning habits, do not shirk hard work (Quanrixhi, 1986).

The concepts and purposes of citizenship education are reflected in the contents:

Confucian moral values such as filial piety, respect for teachers, how to treat others; the enhancement of social morality, for example through good learning habits, frugality, courage; and patriotism, for example, knowledge of great figures of country, knowledge about the country, the national anthem, respect for China’s national dignity,

etc.

In sum, the two syllabuses illustrated that citizenship education in China mainly focuses on the cultivation of individual morality, personal and private affairs, patriotism and national identity but Global citizenship, which is widely discussed in the western societies, is not included.

3.5 CITIZENSHIP EDUCATION IN HONG KONG

3.5.1 *Concepts of Citizenship Education*

3.5.1.1 Civic Education Replaced by Civic-related Subjects

Hong Kong was a British colony for over hundred years. During that period, citizenship education was not promoted. Civics was taught in vernacular schools before the Second World War and was offered as an examination subject in the School Leaving Certificate in 1950. The syllabus was intended to give pupils an insight into the workings of local government as it then existed and provide opportunities for comparison with other forms of government. (ED, 1985, p.1) This subject was replaced by economic and public affairs (EPA) in 1965. From that year onwards, citizenship education in Hong Kong was implemented mainly through civic-related subjects such as EPA and social studies, and through the informal curriculum such as extra-curricular activities.

According to Lee (1999), the civic education provided in Hong Kong was of a rather depoliticized nature during the colonized period. Unlike civic education in China which emphasizes nationalism and patriotism, these ideologies were not stressed in the *General Guidelines on Moral Education in Schools* (ED, 1981) and *Guidelines on Civic Education in Schools* published in 1985. The main focus of citizenship education was mainly on stability.

Citizenship education can be interpreted as the process in which desirable qualities in people are developed to promote better and healthier relationships with government and other members of society (ED, 1985, p.7)

and

In the light of Hong Kong's recent political development, evolution should be the watch-word and the emphasis in this guide will be on civic education as a politically socializing force for promoting stability and responsibility (ED, 1985, p.9).

3.5.1.2 Emphasis on National Identity in face of Political Changes

Unlike the other two guidelines which are depoliticized in nature, national identity is one of the key areas in the *Guidelines on Civic Education in Schools* published in 1996 which could be explained by the change of political status of Hong Kong in 1997. The guidelines of 1996 says:

Politically speaking, one's civic identity is defined by one's national identity. The national community therefore constitutes the ultimate domestic context for one's civic learning. National spirit such as

nationalism and patriotism is essential not only for one's national identity and sense of belonging, but also for the cohesion and strength of one's own nation. (CDC, 1996, p.23)

The CDC (1996) *Guidelines on Civic Education in Schools* was more detailed and clear than the ED (1985) *Guidelines on Civic Education in Schools* in the perspective of the conceptual framework. The 1996 guidelines specified the major aim of citizenship education: as “Self Realization Is Best Achieved in Common Good”. The guidelines also highlighted some core and sustaining concepts and values in order to achieve this aim. The 1996 guidelines received both applause and criticism and did not have a successful implementation in schools.

After the return of sovereignty, the Curriculum Development Council (CDC) of Hong Kong published two documents *Learning to Learn –The Way Forward in Curriculum Development* (CDC, 2001) and *Curriculum Guide for Basic Education* (CDC, 2002a). In these documents, the CDC advocates that moral and civic education is one of the four key tasks to achieve the goal of “Learning to Learn” and argues that effective implementation of citizenship education should be child-centred (CDC, 2001, p.67). The document highlights five essential learning experiences for students' whole person development in their basic education. Moral and civic education and

community service are the two out of these five learning experiences (CDC, 2001).

3.5.1.3 Focus on Moral Values and Citizenship Skills

The Curriculum Guide for Basic Education -- Moral and Civic Education Curriculum Guide (CDC, 2002a) differs from the *Guidelines on Civic Education in Schools* (CDC, 1996) which listed many core and sustaining values for implementation. It specifies five priority values for schools' consideration. These five priority values are: perseverance, respecting others, responsibility, national identity and commitment. The reasons for proposing these five values as stipulated in the *Moral and Civic Curriculum Guide* for Basic Education (2002a) are:

- Perseverance: “as a strength of the Chinese people, is an important quality that they should embrace to help them face life’s challenges and cope with adversities” (CDC, 2002a, p.2).
- Respect for others: In a world with diversity, students “need to develop communication skills and more importantly, acceptance and respect for others so as to appreciate and tolerate views and beliefs different from their own. Cultivating a respect for others is both a personal virtue and the key to enhancing interpersonal competency” (CDC, 2002a, p.2).

- Responsibility: Students need to “realize that the well-being of an individual is inextricably bound up with the collective well-being of the community” (CDC, 2002a, p.3).
- National identity: It is indicated in the curriculum guide that there is a need to strengthen the sense of national identity among our students after Hong Kong returned to China since 1997 (CDC, 2002a, pp.3).
- Commitment: A sense of commitment to one’s work and to others “is of paramount importance as this is a basic attitude for the realization of core personal and social values”. (CDC, 2002a, p.4)

3.5.2 *Citizenship Curriculum*

The first government document on civic or citizenship education was published in 1981, namely *the General Guidelines on Moral Education in Schools*. Before that year, citizenship education or civic education was left in the hands of schools. This guideline was produced because of the increase of juvenile delinquency.

With the recent increase in juvenile delinquency, more attention has been focused on the need for the general school curriculum to reflect greater awareness of the importance of moral education... (Education Department, 1981, p.1)

The Hong Kong government aimed to cultivate students’ moral attitudes and social values through moral education in order to maintain social stability. This document defines moral education as “the preparation for life” and the aim of it is to enable students to become responsible members of society (ED, 1981). Later on, the

Education Department published two guidelines on civic education in 1985 and 1996 accordingly. These two guidelines were political products as they were published in the colonial transitional period.

The aims of citizenship education spelled out in the *Guidelines on Civic Education in Schools* in 1985 were to “develop in young people the sort of knowledge, attitudes and skills necessary for them to become rational, politically sensitive and responsible citizens who can contribute constructively to the process of political and social change” (ED, 1985, p.10). This guideline was published in response to the Joint Declaration of Britain and China in 1984; therefore, the major aim was for the preparation of social and political changes after 1997.

To better prepare for political change, another guideline on civic education was published in 1996. The 1996 Guidelines aimed to “develop in young people not only the basic political knowledge, but also the skills, attitudes and competence necessary for them to observe their civic rights and responsibilities, to acquire critical thinking dispositions and civic awareness, and to become rational and responsible citizens who can play a constructive role in the civic mission of the nation, the state and the world” (CDC, 1996, p.5).

As mentioned above, citizenship education was not fully developed during the British governance until the late transitional period. There was no formal curriculum

on citizenship education till 1998. In that year, a syllabus entitled '*Secondary School Syllabus: Civic Education, F.1 – F.3*' was published (CDC, 1998). However, only a limited number of schools used this syllabus as their teaching curriculum. Instead, majority of the secondary schools developed their own school-based citizenship education curriculum.

It has always been the policy of the government to allow schools to have some autonomy in provision of subjects. Citizenship education was not a core subject before 1997 because it was the belief of the colonial government that 'education for citizenship could not be taught solely from books'. This belief is still prevalent in the present government's view that citizenship education should be taught in cross-curricular themes through the formal and informal curriculum. This is evident in the new curriculum document *Learning to Learn – The Way Forward in Curriculum Development* in which no guidelines are provided for the implementation of moral and civic education, though it is stressed in the document that 'moral and civic education' is the key task in teaching and learning. Implementation of citizenship education in Hong Kong is still half-hearted. It is left to the school authority to decide how much room is allowed for citizenship education. The recent publication of the curriculum reform document indicates that "A holistic perception of moral and civic education covering various issues related to value development such

as sex education, environmental protection, media education, ethics and healthy living is proposed for promotion in schools” (CDC, 2001, p.84). However, as described above, the element of ‘national identity’ is strengthened in the civics-related subjects such as General Studies (a core subject in primary education), Social Studies, Economic and Public Affairs, and Civic Education for junior secondary education.

Though the statement is short and precise, we can still get the meaning from the statement that the aim of citizenship education in Hong Kong is to cultivate students’ sense of belonging and their national identity, and to develop their responsibilities as citizens. In sum, the focus of citizenship education in Hong Kong has changed from maintaining social stability to developing civic and national identity.

In the newly revised *Curriculum Guide of General Studies (Primary One to Six)* (CDC, 2002b), a new strand ‘National Identity and Chinese Culture’ is added to the syllabus. In Key Stage One (Primary One to Three), students should learn:

- My Country
- My people
- The characteristics of Chinese cultures
- Some important historical events in China
- Some interesting national issues

In Key Stage Two (Primary Four to Six), they learn:

- Geography in China
- Important dynasties in Chinese history
- Cultural heritage and Chinese civilization
- Some important persons and issues in Chinese history
- Comparison of today's livelihood with ancient days
- Natural landscape in China
- Some important historical events such as the Opium War, 1911 Revolution
and the establishment of the People's Republic of China
- Some interesting national issues

The Curriculum Development Council (2002a) categorizes the contents for moral and civic education into six areas, namely (1) Personal Development and Healthy Living; (2) Family Life; (3) School Life; (4) Social Life; (5) Life at work; and (6) Life in the community.

The Council has listed some suggested themes under each area without specifying themes for each level (key stage), probably because of this reason:

“During primary and secondary schooling, students encounter various types of life events at different states of their personal and social development. Though the life events may be quite different for different individuals, each event is significant in the way that it provides an authentic context for school to develop moral and civic education curriculum” (CDC, 2002a, p.8).

For example, in the area of ‘Life in the community’ the following topics are listed:

Table 3.1 Suggested core events in the area of ‘Life in the community

For Primary students	For Secondary students
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Using public facilities (such as library, museum, park, swimming pool and beach)• Riding on public transport• Blood donation• Responding to recycle campaign• Helping neighbour/needy in society• Participating in fund-raising activities• Participating in voluntary work• Participating in community activities• Participating in public affairs discussion	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Participating in election activities• Facing temptations and undesirable societal influences• Expressing opinions on issues of social injustice• Participating in National Flag hoisting ceremony• Understanding and showing concern on major events in the mainland• Visits to the mainland• Supporting improvement project on education and living in the mainland• Discussing current issues of local/national/international community

The Learning to Learn – The Way Forward in Curriculum Development

document once again confirms that the implementation of citizenship education is intended to be cross-curricular. The schools have sole responsibility for delivering citizenship education. In the examination oriented educational system, the room reserved for citizenship education is thus limited. It has been criticized by many educators, educationists and scholars that the autonomy policy in implementation is actually a constraint on the development of citizenship education. However,

according to another view, such policy allows schools extreme freedom in the development of citizenship education.

3.6 CONCLUSION

Different places and different times result in different perceptions and purposes of citizenship education. They are devised according to the style of the governments. From the study of concepts of citizenship education and the citizenship education in England, China and Hong Kong, we conclude that the ultimate purpose of citizenship education is to prepare the young citizens for future life.

At present, the major purpose of citizenship education in England is to cultivate active and democratic citizens in order to meet the current economic and political changes in England, Europe and the world. In China, the main purpose is to inculcate patriotism and national identity so that Chinese citizens can resist the influence of Western cultures and values. It is also the current emphasis in citizenship education in China that citizenship education should be taught in an open, democratic atmosphere. In Hong Kong, the recent publication of Moral and Civic Education Curriculum Guide for basic education proposed five priority values for schools in their education for citizenship. However, the implementation of citizenship education in Hong Kong is left to schools. Many scholars and

educationists have criticized the implementation of citizenship in Hong Kong as half-hearted. In the examination oriented educational system and with a congested curriculum, there is little room for the development of citizenship education. In this pragmatic society, what we can still hope for in citizenship education is to adopt a useful, accepted and effective teaching strategy.

Therefore, the next chapter will focus on the teaching strategies for citizenship education and, in particular, strategies for active citizenship. Definition of active citizenship will be explored and teaching strategies in England, China and Hong Kong will be discussed.

CHAPTER FOUR

LITERATURE REVIEW (III)

IMPLEMENTATION AND EFFECTIVE TEACHING STRATEGIES IN CITIZENSHIP EDUCATION

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The last chapter discussed the role of citizenship education in preparing young citizens for their future societies. Some educators such as Davies (1995) describe how citizenship education has been neglected in the curriculum. Citizenship education, in many countries, is not an independent subject. In some places, though it is recognized as a subject, it is not compulsory. In examination-oriented systems, schools usually give civic or citizenship education a low priority. For example, in Australia, given the importance of external examinations in Year 12, and their assessment-driven influence over the school curriculum, citizenship education was not recommended for the upper years of secondary schooling (Civics Expert Group, 1994). This scenario, in fact, is common in almost all countries in the world, not Australia alone. As such, space for the development of citizenship education is limited. We have to fully utilize this limited space in the implementation and teaching and learning of citizenship education.

The implementation of citizenship education varies from country to country and from place to place. The United States and European countries emphasize active

participation in the community as effective and recommend it for adoption in schools (Wade, 1997, de Winter, 1997, QCA, 1998). There is evidence that illustrates the success of participatory learning in citizenship education (Wade, 1997 and 2000, Holden, 1998, Jones, 2000). In contrast, China has regarded a role model approach as effective in cultivating good citizens. There is also evidence that this role model learning approach is effective in civic education (Reed, 1995). In Hong Kong, though citizenship education is not compulsory, the current curriculum document *Learning to Learn – The Way Forward in Curriculum Development* (CDC, 2001) mentioned that community service learning should be encouraged in moral and civic education. However, the document did not explain what service learning is, nor how it is implemented. Thus, this chapter aims to provide a critical review and analysis of (1) the implementation and teaching strategies for citizenship education in other countries; (2) the implementation of citizenship education in England, China; and in Hong Kong; (3) the meaning of an action learning approach; and (4) the benefits that an action learning approach could bring to Hong Kong primary school children.

4.2 REVIEW OF IMPLEMENTATION OF CITIZENSHIP EDUCATION IN WESTERN COUNTRIES

Plato and Aristotle believed that the style of citizenship education should be in line

with the style of government. However, the style of government affects the implementation of citizenship education. For example, there are big differences between the democratic countries like the United States, the Western European countries and the communist countries such as Russia and the Peoples' Republic of China. Hong Kong, because of political change, has relations with both the western and Chinese concepts of citizenship education. In this connection, the following discussion on the implementation of citizenship education in the western countries and China will help to understand how the implementation of Hong Kong citizenship education is influenced by these countries.

4.2.1 In America

Since the 1990s, the United States and many European countries have perceived 'active citizenship' as effective in developing and nurturing democratic citizens (Center for Civic Education, 1995; Wade, 1997a, 1997b; de Winter, 1997).

The United States claims that she is a democratic country so preparing democratic citizens is her chief aim in citizenship education. Wade (1997a), Pratte (1988), Battistoni (1985), Walzer (1989) contend that a liberalism perspective on citizenship is not suitable for the contemporary world as the goal set by liberalism is literally unattainable. Liberalism counts on citizen's rights and talks little about responsibilities. "It does not present an accurate view of the individual, separate

from the institutions with which he or she is integrally connected” (Wade, 1997a, p.7). Walzer (1984) says, “We aim, or we should aim, not at the freedom of the solitary individual but at what can best be called institutional integrity. Individuals should be free by separating them from their fellows” (p.325). Walzer’s view on the unsuitability of liberalism in American democratic citizenship is further elaborated by Wade (1997a) and Pratte (1988) who argue that liberal citizens see the private sphere of life as the source of fulfillment. However, mutual recognition and communion are also necessary to the complete development of self.

To replace the liberal-democratic view of citizenship, many U.S. scholars such as Barber (1984), Battistoni (1985) advocate that a participatory-republican perspective view on citizenship is more appropriate in present day society. This perspective stresses the transformation of private interests into public issues. However, the prerequisite of transformation is to acquire intellectual understanding which is the foundation of reasoning and action. In fact, these elements are strongly interhinted with each other. The suitable pedagogy to implement this perspective is active participation. Pratte (1988) emphasizes the importance of understanding democratic processes and the opportunities for the practice of civic behaviours. Battistoni (1985) and Pratte (1988) recommend that an interdisciplinary approach to civic education through an integrated curriculum is essential because it would help students

explore civic concepts from different perspectives. Battistoni (1985) further asserts that communication and rhetorical skills, critical thinking skill, verbal reasoning, skills in persuasion, bargaining, and compromise, and the ability to recognize common interests are essential skills that citizens need to participate effectively in public life. Therefore, to develop competent democratic American citizens, he recommends a student-centred pedagogy that stresses knowledge through self-discovery and the incitement of interest in one's learning along with the overall context of group learning.

4.2.2 *In Western Europe*

The political changes in Europe after January 1993 caused changes in perception and implementation of European citizenship. Apart from the reconceptualization of the legal status of citizenship, emphasis on rights and obligations and civic participation of a citizen are illustrated in the literature on European citizenship, for example, Osler (1995b), Ravazzolo (1995), de Winter (1997), and Starkey (1995).

Citizenship education in eastern Europe was didactic and teacher-centred for many years. But the overthrow of communist governments in 1989 brought a big change in many of the European countries. The following examples of the "new" implementation of citizenship education in Russia and Poland showed that active citizenship was being practised in Europe.

4.2.2.1 Active citizenship in Russia

In Russia, there were big differences in implementation of citizenship education before and after 1990. One might say that 1990 was the dividing-line for implementation of citizenship education. Owing to her political background, the teaching and learning of citizenship education in Russia was didactic and teacher-centred. Schools did not have the right to choose their curricula; discussion of many topics was forbidden in classroom learning. After 1990, this scenario has changed. According to Ahmetova and Rachmanova (1995), schools have the freedom to design their curricula; for example, human rights which were not discussed before, can now be included in their syllabuses. Teachers can use different activities in the teaching and learning of citizenship education. Take the experience of Moscow school No 199 as an example, which joined a project organized by the Russian Foundation for Promoting UNESCO in 1990 and picked ecological problems as the theme of study. Pupils were allowed to conduct their creative work independently. They learned this theme actively by conducting an experiment on the analysis of the content of waste bins, contacting the relevant organizations to collect data, etc (Ahmetova and Rachmanova, 1995). To some Russian teachers, this activity-based learning is enlightening and effective, but still there are many hurdles ahead of them. The major difficulty is that the conception of traditional learning is

still rooted in the mind of many teachers and students. Other difficulties such as the lack of teaching resources to support the new challenges, and the low level of legal awareness amongst school administrators, teachers and parents regarding the topic of human rights, jeopardized the development of democratic citizenship education in Russia.

4.2.2.2 Active citizenship in Poland

In Poland, after the overthrow of the communist government in 1989, there were changes in the implementation of citizenship education. According to Dorczak (1995), moral education in Poland in 1989 – 1994 was taught through the curricula of other subjects but failed mainly because of the following obstacles: lack of clarity about basic values of moral education, lack of money to pay for curriculum development, untrained teachers and the rapid changes of government (pp.162-163).

In view of the rapid political and social changes in society, the problems in existing traditional methods of moral education could not meet the need of society. Poland therefore introduced a new curriculum for moral education in schools in 1994. The new project adopted an active method of teaching and learning which involved students in “every phase of the educational process starting from designing the curriculum” and aimed to create a new style of teacher – students relations (Dorczak, 1995, p.166). In this sense, this approach promotes students’ ‘active participation’ in

citizenship education.

4.2.2.3 Active citizenship in England

In England, developing active citizenship is the ultimate goal of citizenship education.

The Report *Education for citizenship and the teaching of democracy in schools* (QCA 1998), states that “the terms ‘good citizen’ and ‘active citizen’ have come back into currency... We firmly believe that volunteering and community involvement are necessary conditions of civil society and democracy...While we say that voluntary and community activity cannot be the full meaning of active citizenship, we also recognize that freedom and full citizenship in the political arena itself depends on a society with a rich variety of non-political associations and voluntary groups – what some have called civil society...” (pp.10-11)

The term ‘active citizenship’ not only includes students’ participation in service learning and community involvement; more than that, students’ involvement in the school’s organization, for example, in school councils, is encouraged (QCA, 1998, p.25).

In response to the new concept of European citizenship, Davies (1998) introduced a project approach to citizenship education through the teaching and learning of History in five secondary schools. This project approach requires active participation in learning. The aims of this approach are to develop necessary skills



such as analytical thinking, enquiry, etc; to acquire knowledge of contemporary Europe; and to explore the nature of tolerance, prejudice and discrimination in Europe to strengthen constructive tolerance. The whole project emphasizes small group discussion and problem-solving skill. Opportunities for individual written work are also provided (pp.150–151).

The response from teachers and students to this project approach has, on the whole, positive. Davies (1995) described this project as a useful platform from which to develop education for citizenship. The written work submitted by students was very impressive. Students showed that they had a good grasp of knowledge about European History. Students also displayed improvement in analytical thinking and problem-solving skills. Teachers were very positive about the importance of education for European citizenship. However, some research results were less encouraging, showing that not all students could display a clear understanding of knowledge.

At primary school level, Klein (2001) suggests some teaching methods such as storytelling, local surveys, processes of voting, learning through photography, role play, etc. However, except local surveys, the activities listed, do not all provide opportunities for students to gain direct experience from community.

Jones (2000) initiated an action learning project for citizenship education in a

secondary school in Essex. The outcomes of the project were encouraging. Self-esteem of students was raised. Many kinds of skills such as decision-making and collaborative skills were developed. Pupils demonstrated their competence and interest in community commitment as well. Jones concluded that action learning was effective in teaching citizenship, particularly for the less able pupils.

On the other hand, three studies on student participation presented by Holden (1998) displayed an entirely different view of participation in the teaching of citizenship education. Holden described the action taken by young people from 7 to 18 years old in working for change and the role schools play in enabling and encouraging such commitment. Disagreeing with some teachers' views on active citizenship, Holden (1998) argued that it was possible for schools to be more proactive in curriculum planning by facilitating involvement in school and community projects. She further argued that the scope of active citizenship was broad, it involved more than just fund raising, or tree planting. (1998, pp.21-22)

Kerr (1999), in a survey of 144 primary schools, found that teachers felt the most effective approach to citizenship education was through active strategies, such as discussion and debate. Kerr (1999) pointed out that students 14 to 16 years old were more likely to participate in community activity or service than younger students. He reported the survey results conducted by NFER (1999) and concluded that though a

variety of activities were arranged, little was known about students' experiences of activities outside school and minimal participation of young people was seen.

From the cases presented above, as criticized by Kerr, student participation and commitment in community and society is limited. Furthermore, teachers' concepts of active participation should not be confined to discussion, debates, or fund raising. If schools wish to achieve the aims set by the QCA, educators, teacher trainers, school administrators, teachers, etc. have to give more thought to ways of achieving them.

4.2.3 *Pedagogy in Citizenship Education*

4.2.3.1 General teaching approaches

The Evidence for the Policy and Practice Information and Coordinating Centre (EPPI-Centre) (2004) conducted a review on the definition of citizenship education provided by Crick et al. (1998) and the policy framework for Citizenship Education in England in 2000. It is stipulated in *A systematic review of the impact of citizenship education on the provision of schooling* (EPPI, 2004) that there are three broad teaching approaches for citizenship education as (1) a transmission approach; (2) a process approach; and (3) a transformational professional approach.

Transmission Approach

A Transmission approach focuses on knowledge content. As explained in *A systematic review of the impact of citizenship education on the provision of schooling*

by the Evidence for Policy and Practice Information and Coordinating Centre (EPPI-Centre) (2004), ‘it is instructional in style, predictable in intent and focused in its methodologies, and flexible in programme design’ (p.8). According to this interpretation, the transmission approach is didactic, teacher-centred and single-tracked.

Process Approach

There are some common characteristics between ‘the process approach’ and ‘the transformational professional approach’ because both approaches stress that teachers should play the role of facilitator in the process of teaching and learning.

EPPI (2004) interprets the process approach as “focuses mainly on the context of schooling and the ways in which schooling is organized – developmental in style, unpredictable in intent, varied in methodologies and flexible in programme design” (p.8). Given that this approach is developmental, learners have to investigate the answers and knowledge, and apply various study skills during the process of learning. Therefore, the process approach provides ample opportunities for participation. In this sense, the experiential approach which is also developmental, emphasizes the experience that learners gain from the process of learning. On the other hand, service learning can be included in a process approach because service learning is an experiential approach to pedagogy, from which students “develop expectations of

what can or should be learned as a result of involvement in the project” (Waterman, 1997, p.3).

Transformational Professional Approach

According to EPPI (2004), a transformational professional approach is on the opposite end of transmission approach because this approach is

concerned with the re-professionalisation of teachers as facilitators of learning and focused on learning as a process for transforming society – based on the teacher as a primary agent of social change, developed in a community context, adaptable to widely changing circumstances, and flexible in programme design (p.8).’

This description of transformational professional approach describes most of the characteristics of service learning.

4.2.3.2 Service learning

In America, service learning has been widely practiced since 1990s. Barber (1992) strongly recommends the effectiveness of service learning in engendering democratic citizenship. He contends that civic education can be most effective when it includes experiential learning of the kind offered by community service. But he reminds teachers that service should not be seen as a form of charity or be completed in a self-sacrificial manner. “The language of citizenship suggests that self-interests are always embedded in communities of action and that in serving neighbours one also

serves oneself. Self and community, private interest and public good, are necessarily linked” (Barber, 1992, p.249).

In fact, the notion of service learning was not created in recent decades. According to Wade (1997b), ‘the idea of national service can be traced back to 1910, when William James, an American philosopher, envisioned nonmilitary national service’ (p.24). The idea of national service was further promoted by several American presidents such as Franklin Delano Roosevelt (1933), John Kennedy (1966), George Bush (1989) and Clinton (1993). These presidents promoted national and community service as a means of tapping the high potential within individuals and integrating youth into the community and the nation (Waterman, 1997). John Dewey viewed community service as an integral part of educational experience, because what is learned in the school must be taken and utilized beyond its bounds, both for the benefits of students and the betterment of future societies (Dewey, 1916). The rationale for service learning is rooted in a concern for the development of young people socially, psychologically, and intellectually as well as in an interest in the transformation of schools and learning. Besides Dewey, scholars such as Hilda Taba (1962) and Ralph Tyler (1949) showed their support, by incorporating the notion of community service in the school curriculum in the early 1970s. Their ideas were supported by several education organizations (Kinsley & McPherson, 1995). As a

result, thousands of schools, from kindergarten to high school, are incorporating service in the curriculum (Wade, 1997b, pp.23-25).

According to the Alliance for Service-Learning in Education Reform (ASLER) (1993), the term *service learning* is defined as follows:

Service Learning is a method by which young people learn and develop through active participation in thoughtfully-organized service experiences: that meet actual community needs, that are integrated into each young person's academic curriculum, that provide structured time for a young person to think, talk, and write about what he/she did and saw during the actual service activity, that provide young people with opportunities to use newly acquired academic skills and knowledge in real life situations in their own communities, that enhance what is taught in the school by extending student learning beyond the classroom, and that help to foster the development of a sense of caring for others. (ASLER, 1993, p.1)

The definition given by ASLER is nearly the same as the definition provided by the Commission on National and Community Service in 1990. Another educator Wade (1997b) asserts that service learning is not an extra-curricular activity. "It is a pedagogical method in which service projects form the basis of learning opportunities. Furthermore, service learning is a means for students to develop real world skills and knowledge they can apply both inside and outside of the classroom" (p.20). Waterman (1997) shares Wade's view. He explains that service learning projects are

“designed, enacted, supervised, and evaluated with the educational benefits of the experiences as one of the consciously held goals” (p.3). In this sense, service learning is a kind of experiential learning.

Rhoads (1997) integrates community service and higher learning and gives this definition: “community service is one educational activity that may be used to foster a caring self in that it is grounded in an ethic of care and involves more connected ways of knowing. In turn, higher learning may be reconstituted around an ethic in which activities such as community service become central processes rather than peripheral activities” (p.63). Rhoads sees service learning as a channel to develop the caring self, explore the understanding of others, and through action, one’s own reflective ability is developed.

4.2.3.2 Effectiveness of service learning

Many studies on the effectiveness of service learning have found that service learning changes the relationship between teachers and students because teachers usually act as facilitators rather than instructors. Teachers will solve problems encountered during service projects collaboratively with students. The quality of learning environment thus becomes better. As a result, the atmosphere of the school as a whole is enhanced (Brill, 1994; Shumer, 1994).

Waterman (1997) asserts that the benefits derived from service learning can be

grouped into four categories: (1) enhancement in the learning of material that is part of the traditional in-school curriculum; (2) promoting personal development; (3) fostering the development of civic responsibility and other values of citizenship; and (4) benefits accruing to the community (p.3).

Schools do come across some problems while implementing service learning. The major difficulty of service learning is assessment. Teachers have found that it is difficult to assess the effects of community participation because it encompasses a wide variety of practices with an even wider variety of purposes. In particular, teachers have difficulty in measuring outcomes that focus on broad and stable personal characteristics that take time to see changes. Also, these are not measured easily using questionnaire surveys (Conrad, 1991).

However, some encouraging findings have been found in regards to student outcomes, namely, academic and intellectual development; social and personal development; and political efficacy and participation (Close Up Foundation, 1995, Wade, 1997b).

Referring to academic and intellectual development, Conrad and Hedin (1987) reported that students displayed better problem-solving abilities compared with those students who did not participate in the service learning project. Wilson (1974) also found that students in projects involving political or social action were more

open-minded than others. Shumer (1994) noted that students improved their attendance and school grades as compared with a control group.

In relation to outcomes in social and personal development, as reported by Battistoni (1997), and Conrad and Hedin (1981), Newmann and Rutter (1983) used the Social and Personal Responsibility Scale and found modest gains in social and personal responsibility. Hamilton and Fenzel (1988) found significant gains in the social responsibility subscale but not on the personal responsibility subscale.

The findings in relation to political efficacy and participation are mixed. Newmann and Rutter (1983) could not find any changes in political efficacy, plans for future participation, or future social/institutional affiliation of the students participating in service. Conversely, Conrad and Hedin (1982) found that students in service learning programmes showed larger gains in valuing community involvement than control students. Other scholars such as Hamilton and Zeldin (1987), Wilson (1974), Button (1973) also found positive results from the findings. However, Corbett (1977) did not find any gains in political efficacy in his study (Wade, 1997, pp.31-33).

In America, some schools perceive service learning as a channel for practicing active citizenship. Similarly, citizenship education in European countries also emphasizes active participation in the learning of citizenship education.

4.2.3.3 Participatory approach

What is participation?

There is a distinction made between political participation and social participation. de Winter (1997) perceives political participation as “the behaviour of citizens aimed at influencing the political decision-making process directly or indirectly” (p.62). On the other hand, social participation is not concerned with political processes, but with influencing policy that affects daily life in a direct way. He sees social participation as the means to develop children’s sense of commitment, as autonomous, discerning and responsible members of the community.

Hart (1992) defines participation as the “fundamental right of citizenship...referring generally to the process of sharing decisions which affect one’s life and the life of the community in which one lives. It is the means by which a democracy is built and it is a standard against which democracies should be measured” (p.5). He advocates that it is important to provide opportunity for children’s participation with two major arguments. Firstly, from the perspective of developmental psychology, children should learn responsibility through participation. Secondly, involving children in the improvement of their own living environment can be a catalyst that activates a local community as a whole. Children took part in activities designed by adults (1997, pp.38 – 39).

The Council of Europe defined youth participation as “young people’s right to be included, to be allowed and encouraged to assume duties and responsibilities and to make one’s own decisions” (Council of Europe, 1993). The Council further elaborated on participation in two specific ways: participation means the right to influence in a democratic manner processes bearing upon one’s own life, and to be involved in the development of local youth policy.

de Winter (1997) also quoted the report given by the Ministerie of van Welzijn, Volksgezondheid en Cultuur that the European governments view youth participation and commitment policy as a preventive measure, providing opportunities for youth to protect themselves, to learn independence, and to prevent themselves from being isolated socially (p.34).

Holden (1998) discusses education for values-based participation, “assisting children to acquire the skills necessary for taking action and ultimately providing opportunities for them to become involved as active citizens” (p.14).

To implement a participation approach successfully, Holden (1988) suggests a change in the teacher’s role from instructor to listener and facilitator. She says, “The teacher’s role is thus to have the courage to listen to children’s concerns, engage them in debate and support their developing understanding of citizenship through assisting participation” (p.16).

4.2.4.1 Advantages of Participatory Approach

It is believed by many educators that demanding that children become good citizens without actual understanding and direct involvement in the world of adults is impractical and unreasonable. Teaching citizenship education in a traditional way, i.e. teaching philosophies and ideals in the classroom without looking at the real face of society, is just like education in a 'glasshouse'.

A participatory approach provides an opportunity for students to gain and share experience in society, and to express their opinions. According to Bronfenbrenner (1979), participation confirms the status quo in which students find themselves (p.59).

A participatory approach to learning can be defined as the active involvement of participants in all kinds of learning activities inside and outside classrooms. Inside the classroom, activities such as discussion, role play, simulation games, group work, cooperative learning, debates, brainstorming, etc. can be seen as participatory approaches. Other activities performed outside classroom like field excursion, visits, surveys, giving services, etc. are also categorized as participatory approach.

The goal of the participatory approach to learning is getting students to learn *how* to learn instead of *what* to learn. As participatory learning focuses on students' reflection, thus, learning how to think is also an important elements (Close Up Foundation, 1995; Sugrue, 1997). Through this approach, students are required to

analyze, synthesize, and evaluate the issues and concepts rather than merely recognize facts. To achieve the goal of this approach, students need to familiarize themselves with the community to inquire through the processes of identifying problems, assessing what they know, collecting information and proposing possible solutions.

Participation enlarges the field of development, thus creating new opportunities to learn in the cognitive, social and emotional areas. Last but not least, a developmental environment with active commitment of children is only the starting point. It is characterized by interest in children's way of life, respect for their needs, support and understanding, development of initiative, and the opportunities to develop their talents.

4.3 IMPLEMENTATION OF CITIZENSHIP EDUCATION IN CHINA

Unlike the current teaching strategies and approaches adopted in the western countries, the teaching of citizenship education in the People's Republic of China (PRC) has maintained a traditional, teacher-centred, didactic approach, even though the Moral educational document in 1988 "expresses a clear emphasis on the spirit of openness and emphasis on student-centred teaching" (Lee, 1996, p.7). For many thousands of years, Confucianism has influenced the moral behaviour of Chinese people. This can be shown in the development of citizenship education in the PRC even though the

teaching and learning of moral education in China has always been under the direction of the central government since 1949.

In this sense, in order to understand the development of citizenship education in China, we can study the documents issued by the Chinese Communist Party (CCP). From these documents, we know that the implementation of citizenship education in China has been greatly influenced by social, economic and political changes. The implementation can be categorized as follows:

1. Political Indoctrination

After the end of Cultural Revolution in 1976, the government was aware of the destruction caused by the Cultural Revolution and the importance of moral education. In this respect, the view that “schools should play a more powerful role in transmitting correct values to students was revived” (Hawkins, et. al., 2001, p. 194). The State Council (1979) emphasized the need to cultivate “red and expert”³ individuals and asserted that education should cover not only the intellectual aspect but also the moral and physical aspects. The implementation of citizenship education in this period mainly adopted the transmission approach.

2. Rebuilding Public Order after the Cultural Revolution

In this period, the movement of rebuilding some form of moral base and thought

³ “Red and expert” is a common term used in China. “Red” means values focused on political awareness, socialism and communism among others, and “expert” is the more objective, scientific, value free approach to getting things done. (Hawkins, et.al., 2001, p.194)

which was destroyed in Cultural Revolution continued. Moral qualities “Five Stresses and Four Beauties” were specified. The “Five Stresses”: civilized behaviour, courtesy, hygiene, public order, and morals and the “Four Beauties” referred to the beautification of mind, language, conduct and environment (CCP Propaganda Department, 1982). These two slogans were part of the ideopolitical work which were a means of upholding socialist and communist thought that met the needs of the new decade (CCP Central Committee, 1982).

3. Encouraging Independent Thinking within a Patriotic Framework

Rebuilding moral qualities after the Cultural Revolution continued in 1983 and 1984. Hawkins et.al. (2001) described this period as “the effort moved beyond personal qualities and behaviours to demonstrating a concern over the new freedoms and independence characteristic of the economic liberalization that was taking place” (p. 194). In 1983, the CCP Central Committee issued a document entitled *Notice on Strengthening Ideopolitical Work*. The Notice suggested strengthening ideopolitical work and methods for strengthening moral and ideopolitical education such as the promotion of self-initiative, the use of guidance and persuasion, positive reinforcement (praise and approval), reflection, modelling and learning from experience (Lee, 2002a). Many of the recommended methods in this period for example, positive reinforcement, learning from experience and reflection, are also

promoted nowadays in many places such as Hong Kong. Two Notices namely *Opinions on Strengthening Patriotic Education* and *Notice on the Distribution of 'Opinions on Strengthening the Education of Revolutionary Tradition* were issued by the Central Committee of CCP (1983) and CCP (1984) to address the problem of the decline of patriotism among the young people and to support the anti-spiritual pollution campaign.

4. Growing Intellectual Liberalization and the Emergence of Student-centred Approaches

This was a period of liberalization: intellectual liberalization and economic liberalization. The CCP Central Committee (1985a) issued a *Notice on Reforming the Teaching of the Ideological-Moral-Political Theory Curriculum* in August 1985. This Notice pointed out that the different stages of schooling should stress different aspects of moral-ideological-political education, conducted through subjects and extra-curricular activities. Furthermore, the contents should cover Five Stresses, Four Beauties, Five Lovings⁴ and social ethics. In primary schools, ideomoral education should be emphasized, ideopolitical education in secondary schools, and Marxist theories in tertiary education. The Notice listed some methods of implementing moral education, for example, avoiding indoctrination, supporting facts

⁴ Five Lovings referred to loving the motherland, people, labour, science and socialism.

with evidence; encouraging students to organize free class discussions, field work and surveys; introducing a variety of perspectives to students. Another document *Teaching Outline of Ideomoral Education in Whole-day Primary Schools* issued by CCP Central Committee in May 1986 signified a change of teaching and learning of citizenship education from a teacher-centred to a child-centred approach. This “Teaching Outline” encouraged independent thinking, self-education and free expression of ideas and open discussion. To maintain stability and order in the country, the Central Committee of CCP issued a document entitled *Decision on Strengthening Ideopolitical Work in Higher Education Institutions* in June 1987. The document suggested strengthening ideopolitical work among the young people through the teaching of Marxist theories and political situation, and guiding students to conduct social service.

5. Increased Emphasis on Self-management in Citizenship Education

The spirit of openness and emphasis on student initiatives continued in 1988. However, the June 4th incident in Tiananmen Square in 1989 led to aggressive measures of ideological control in March 1990. The promotion of learning using Lei Feng as a model began again because no model had emerged to replace him (Agelasto and Adamson, 1998). Apart from formal school education, various youth organizations were formed, such as the Young Pioneers (xiaosendui), the Young

Communist League (gongqingtuan) to promote proper attitudes of the youth towards their country (Li, 1990).

The publication of *Opinions on Further Strengthening of Moral Education Work in Primary and Secondary Schools* (State Education Commission 1990) reiterated the need for patriotism and collectivism, and stressed the need to cultivate students' capacities of self-management and self-education in the implementation of citizenship education.

The role model approach, which will be discussed in the following paragraph, has been adopted as a means to transmit moral values. Students are taught to learn and copy widely publicized role models from their schooling in kindergarten onwards.

4.3.1 *How is Role Model Approach Revisited?*

In the teaching of citizenship education in China, a soldier called Lei Feng⁵ is chosen as the model that Chinese youths should copy.

Lei Feng served as a socialist image to promote social, political and ideological goals. Teachers make up stories using Lei Feng-like behaviour in storytelling activity, and a permanent picture of Lei Feng was hung in the back of the classroom. Students read and wrote about him. 'Learn from Comrade Lei Feng' became the most popular slogan in China for over 20 years (Government of China, 1983).

⁵ Lei Feng was an ordinary man with no special talent. However, he was diligent, obedient, loyal to the Party and Mao, and above all, committed to serving the people and the motherland.

4.3.2 *The value of the Role Models Approach*

Reed (1995) analysed four values of the role models approach in China in his study. These values were: first, the implication of role models is that everyone in society will have the potential to be a model. Second, if people behave in accordance with the norms set by this exemplar, he/she will receive the most valuable honour. Third, appropriate behaviour is the outward expression of correct political consciousness. Fourth, the implicit message of role models is that children should trust the authorities to do the right thing (p.103).

4.3.3 *The effectiveness of Role Models Approach in citizenship education*

Reed (1995) studied the role model approach of Lei Feng between 1987 and 1990 with 50 interviewees in Mainland China and in the United States. The majority of the respondents admitted that the role model approach had influenced their thinking and behaviour in their schooling. Only one respondent out of the 50, because of his family background, had bitter memories of Lei Feng. Almost all the interviewees had engaged in group activities such as sweeping the street; adopting an elderly neighbour in order to help them carry water, wash windows or clean; and even engaging in a fly eradication campaign. A number of respondents indicated that there was a “virtue contest” for demonstrating Lei Feng’s spirit among their classmates.

The interpretation of active citizenship is different between the west and China.

The western countries encourage children to learn beyond their classrooms and gain experience in their societies through active social and political participation, while in China, active learning in citizenship is confined to daily life and moralities. Political participation, for example, taking part in demonstrations is not encouraged.

4.4 IMPLEMENTATION OF CITIZENSHIP EDUCATION IN HONG KONG

Citizenship education in Hong Kong is implemented through a cross-curricular approach. For example, students learn about rights and responsibilities of citizens through Social Studies, government institutions and policies through a subject called Government and Public Affairs (GPA).

Two reports on the *Evaluation of the Implementation of the “Guidelines on Civic Education in Schools”* published in 1986 and 1987 by the Education Department illustrated that the implementation of citizenship education was integrated with other subjects. Over 80% of the respondents revealed that civic education was taught as a cross curricular theme; only 1% of the Hong Kong schools (both primary and secondary) taught civic education as an independent subject. The majority of schools made use of school assemblies to teach civic education, over 89% in secondary school and 93% in primary schools. Students could learn citizenship education through extra-curricular activities as well. The most common

extra-curricular activities were boy scouts and girl guides, Duke of Edinburgh Award Scheme, and Community Youth Club. Some schools had organized social services, such as charity walks, visiting homes for the aged, etc (Education Department, 1986, 1987).

The two reports did not mention the teaching strategies adopted by teachers in citizenship education. Instead, a number of difficulties in implementation were outlined. These difficulties were: the timetable and examination-oriented system did not allow much time for teaching citizenship education; insufficient teaching materials; misconceptions on the part of some teachers about civic education; and insufficient coordination amongst teachers of the same school (Education Department, 1986; 1987).

To address the problems of inadequate teaching resources and misconceptions about civic education, the Education Department began publishing the *Civic Education Bulletin* annually and the *Civic Education Newsletter* three times a year.

Another survey on the implementation of civic education was conducted in 1991 by the Education Department. The findings revealed that schools were supportive in implementation and there was growing concern about civic education in schools because of the increase in student behavioural problems. (Education Department, 1991)

Lee (1999) published his survey findings on the IEA project on civic education implementation in Hong Kong in 1999. Findings showed that the teaching of citizenship education was rather didactic and basically through extra-curricular activities. Case studies by Yip (1998) related to implementation of citizenship education in a primary school, found that 90% of the respondents did not find the learning of citizenship education interesting and attractive. The scenarios found in these studies were far beyond the expectation of the Curriculum Development Council in the learning of citizenship education as expressed in the *Learning to Learn – The Way Forward in Curriculum Development* document (2001).

4.4.1 *The child-centred learning approach in citizenship education*

The *Learning to Learn – The Way Forward in Curriculum Development* (CDC, 2001) document published by the Curriculum Development Council of Hong Kong Education Department states that the implementation of moral and civic education should be learner-focused.

“Learning opportunities should be provided for students to develop and reflect on their values and attitudes using events relevant to their daily life. In the school context, principals and teachers are crucial facilitators in students’ values formation. Various means of support will be provided to enhance their professional competency, empowering them to be effective facilitators in developing students’ positive values and attitudes” (CDC, 2001, p.3).

Learning to Learn – The Way Forward in Curriculum Development (CDC, 2001)

recommends students to take an active role in participating in learning opportunities, both inside and outside the classroom; and expects students to reflect on their values through active participation. In other words, teachers need to provide opportunities for student participation. Furthermore, the role of teacher should be changed. Teachers are expected to develop an open learning and teaching culture in order to nurture students' moral and civic development (CDC, 2001, pp.84-85).

The recommendations made by the Curriculum Development Council are reasonable and appropriate. However, such recommendations can never be achieved if the style of teaching and learning is not changed. The pedagogies adopted in other countries, suggest that an action learning approach may be worth investigating in the teaching and learning of citizenship education in Hong Kong. What is action learning? We need to consider how it is different from active participation and service learning, as the terms often seem to appear together.

4.5 AN ACTION LEARNING APPROACH IN CITIZENSHIP EDUCATION

4.5.1 *Definition of action learning*

Fred Newmann (1978) believes “social action”, “community-involvement”, “action learning”, or “youth participation”, programmes in citizenship education are more

relevant in citizenship education development. According to Newmann (1978), “action” represents assertiveness as opposed to passivity, ...to take some responsibility for rather than be controlled by events, a propensity for “doing” rather than only thinking or talking (pp.4-7).

Superficially, the term ‘action learning’ refers to learning through action. It also means active participation in learning. Many eminent educators such as John Dewey, Piaget, Hilda Taba, Ralph Tyler. (Kinsley and McPherson, 1995) believe that active participation in learning is helpful in enhancing the learner’s interest in learning. They also placed a lot of emphasis on the importance of integrating learning experiences into the curriculum to provide a framework for learning. John Dewey (1916) believed that all learning curriculum must be generated out of social situations, based on the capacity of the child and the demands of the environment, and student involvement in learning is an essential element in effective education.

There is another significant feature of action learning. As action learning actively involves students, so it should focus on children’s needs and interests. In other words, action learning should be child-centred or learner-centred, otherwise students are only “actively passive and industriously receptive” while in every other respect leaving themselves “in the teacher’s hands” (Sugrue, 1977, p.67). In this connection, action learning is a child-centred learning pedagogy. The five principles

of child-centred learning outlined by Sugrue (1997) best explain why action learning pedagogy should be child-centred. The five principles are:

1. full and harmonious development of the child;
2. respect for individual difference;
3. activity and discovery;
4. environment-based learning;
5. integration of subject matter.

According to McGill & Beaty (1996), “action learning is a continuous process of learning and reflection, supported by colleagues, with an intention of getting things done. Through action learning individuals learn with and from each other by working on real problems and reflecting on their own experiences” (p.21). They emphasize that action learning is based on the relationship between action and reflection and action learning involves a group of people; thus action learning places stress on collaboration. They believe that experience will help judgment about future action.

From the above definitions, three criteria are drawn for action learning. First, action learning is performed in groups so that individuals can learn from each other. Secondly, there should be a task designed or assigned for action and participation. Thirdly, reflection is the end product. The outcomes of action learning, thus, are that

collaboration amongst group members is enhanced; students' sense of responsibility is cultivated; and reflection is developed through the process of learning. Students gain experience from action then reflect on, and from reflection; they can generalize their learning to other situations. As a result, the learning cycle through experience is formed. Kolb (1984) describes this as a cycle of experiential learning (Fig. 1).

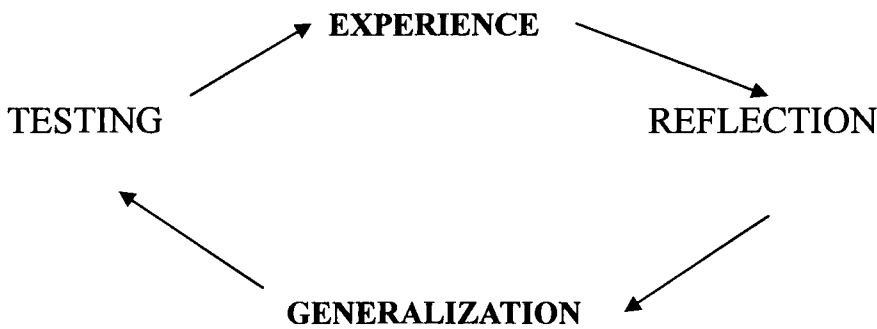


Figure 4.1 Kolb's Learning Cycle

It is believed that students will change their conceptions or opinions through experience. Therefore, McGill and Beaty (1996, p.21) advocates that the power of action learning is learning through experience in order to change rather than simply repeating previous patterns. Philip Jones (2000) perceives the function of action learning as empowering young people to apply their knowledge and skills to solve problems and learn from their experience.

4.5.2 *Terminologies of action learning*

As action learning requires active participation, therefore, participation is a basic

criterion of action learning. Hence, participatory learning approaches can be termed as action learning.

Wade (1997) advocates the importance of participation in citizenship education, he states that there are four essential components of civic education: intellectual understanding, participation skills, civic attitudes and direct participation in schools and communities. This statement illustrates the importance of participation in citizenship education (p.14). Through participation, students gain their experiences in learning, this matches Kolb's learning cycle. Given that the participatory approach to learning also emphasizes reflection which is an important component of action learning, therefore, participatory learning is a kind of action learning.

According to Arnstein (1969), there are eight levels of participation: (1) manipulation; (2) therapy; (3) informing; (4) consultation; (5) placation; (6) partnership; (7) delegated power; and (8) citizen control. The first two levels are regarded as nonparticipation. According to Arnstein (1969), the real objective of "nonparticipation" 'is not to enable people to participate in planning or conducting programs, but to enable power holders to "educate" or "cure" the participants' (p.217). Levels three, four and five only allow citizens to voice their opinions. The power holders still retain the right to decide. Citizens have greater influence or even "full managerial power" (p.217) at the eighth level. Hart (1969) had a similar

classification of participation. He categorized participation into two major categories: real participation (students have adequate insight into the intention of a project) and unreal participation (students only play a passive role in learning).

The major difference between participatory learning and action learning is that in the latter, students play an active role while in participatory learning, students' involvement can be passive. Passive participation cannot be treated as action learning. Otherwise, the two terms can be used interchangeably.

Battistoni (1985) notes that students learn the cognitive and affective knowledge of democratic citizenship better through involvement in community projects, research, social service, etc. than through classroom instruction alone.

Service learning is characterized by its emphasis on participation and reflection. It is regarded as one kind of action learning because service learning bears the characteristics of action learning. According to Wade (2000), service learning is the integration of community service projects that benefit the school or community with academic skills and content as well as structured reflection on the service experience (2000, p.6). Wade (1997) elaborates on the function of service learning by arguing that students observe and experience events; they reflect on their experience; they develop concepts that explain the events; they generalize from experience and test these concepts in varied situations. These characteristics are similar to the

characteristics of action learning and consistent with Kolb's Learning Cycle in action learning.

Rhoads (1997) views community service learning and reflection as being in a reciprocal and dynamic relationship with each other. He says, "reflection without action has no sustenance. Such a process has no beginning or ending and can be entered at any point. We join the oppressed in their struggle, and because we care and want to exist in communion with them, their struggle becomes our struggle. In turn, we reflect on our efforts and what we have accomplished or failed to accomplish and consider new options to achieve social, political, or economic change. This then leads to more action, and the process continues as we form a joint movement to transform society and alleviate oppression" (p.184).

Thus, service learning is meant to enhance a sense of social responsibility and civic awareness while providing an opportunity to apply academic learning. This belief is further supported by Waterman (1997) that "Service to the community is also seen as a way to promote an identification with and involvement in community institutions, including governmental agencies" (p.5).

Active Citizenship Today, a school based citizenship education programme conducted in the US (Close Up Foundation, 1995) sees service learning as a programme that makes young people think about why they are performing a particular

service and what they are learning from their service experience. Reflection is an integral part of service learning. Students keep journals and write about their service projects examining what they are doing, why they are doing it, and how they feel about it (p.10).

To summarize the above characteristics of service learning, participatory approach and action learning, they all emphasize participation and reflection. The significant feature of service learning is it must be about service but service is not a requirement in action learning. Therefore, to distinguish the difference between service learning and action learning, service learning is a kind of action learning because it is a task; it requires participation and reflection. However, action learning is not equivalent to service learning because it may not be conducted in the format of service. Action learning can take place in other kinds of activities such as experiment, debates, field-based study, role play, discussion, drama, visits, etc. Therefore, the term ‘action learning’ is an umbrella. It covers participatory approaches, service learning and child-centred learning.

4.5.2 Why is action learning important to Hong Kong citizenship education?

The values of action learning in citizenship education are many.

4.5.2.1 Psychological development

In the first place, this learning strategy benefits children in psychological growth and

development. Piaget (1963) studied the cognitive development of children and formulated a theory characterizing development as a process of phases in which the child, through internal mechanisms such as assimilation and adaptation, learns to understand his environment better (Piaget, 1963). According to him, learning can influence the content of thinking but not the cognitive structures themselves. This is the reason why participation in learning is important. Furthermore, through action learning, in which children have to work in groups, they learn how to work with others and how to cooperate. Piaget (1997) finds that, “cooperation suppresses both egocentrism and moral realism, and thus achieves an interiorization of rules...it is one thing to prove that cooperation in the play and spontaneous social life of children brings about certain moral effects...” (pp.404-406). Thus, one of the values of action learning is helping children develop their collaborative and cooperative abilities. Newmann (1975) advocates action learning can break down the isolation and alienation of persons from themselves and from each other, thus enabling a more “human” or “caring” community to develop. This approach is also “a vehicle to promote growth in cognitive complexity, moral reasoning, or the accumulation of ego-strength” (p.10). This value is particularly important to the Hong Kong children as most of them are from small families, with only one or no sibling at home. Then, school becomes the place where they learn how to cooperate and collaborate with

others. Action learning, thus, can provide ample opportunities for children to develop these skills.

Many research findings confirm that participation can enhance children's self-esteem, sense of "citizen responsibility" and competence at work (Close Up Foundations, 1995). These benefits are well reflected from the cases illustrated by Davies, Jones, Holden and Clough mentioned earlier. Jones (2000) reports:

"...they saw them as opportunities to raise their own self-esteem and that making a contribution to the community and helping other people would be a positive experience for them personally. The responses showed that it was important that the participants felt some success from their involvement in action learning projects and that they valued adult recognition of their efforts and achievement" (p.24).

4.5.2.2 Reflection

Second, action learning helps children to reflect upon their past experience which is one of the major functions of action learning. Students' reflectivity is developed through group work, in which they design their activities, test them out, and then experience the results. They evaluate and reflect on their performance. McGill and Beaty (1996) say, "With action learning, reflection in sets allows for a much greater level of awareness of the complexity of the internal and external world and their interrelationships through the support, challenge and empathy of the members of the set" (pp. 34-35).

4.5.2.3 Knowledge construction and skills development

Thirdly, through action learning, children can acquire knowledge and skills through participation. Various kinds of skills are, therefore, developed and enhanced, for example, problem-solving skills, collaborative skills, enquiry skills, etc. Jones (2000) found that his students realized that they had learnt skills such as how to work as a team, and how to make decision that would enable them to become more active citizens in future.

4.5.2.4 Enhancement of social responsibility and competence

Fourthly, action learning can enhance students' social responsibility and competence. For example, Holden's (1998) study shows that children had developed social and structural insights and expressed an understanding about values and action. Children also demonstrated their ability to work as a collective group not as individuals (p.75).

Jones (2000) reports, "Pupils felt that they had gained more knowledge about how the community is organized and how individuals and groups can contribute their ideas for improvements and changes" (p.24).

The action learning approach is consistent with the strategies suggested in CDC's (2001) *Learning to Learn – The Way Forward in Curriculum Development* that learning of moral and civic education should be learner-focused, and students should be provided with opportunities to reflect on their values and attitudes through life

events. With the increase of students' behavioural problems nowadays, action learning, though not a panacea, is believed to be one of the effective strategies in solving or reducing the problems.

4.6 CONCLUSION

As discussed in chapter two, the important qualities of good citizenship are participation; self-regulation, civic and social concern, respect for others and collaboration. Today, the young generation in Hong Kong are criticized by the public for lack of social responsibility, lack of public virtues, lack of care and concern of others, etc. What can citizenship education do to help this situation? Successful implementation of a participatory approach to citizenship education should help to address these problems as well as meeting the aims set for Moral and Civic Education in Hong Kong. However, in the present situation and environment, a lot of difficulties of implementing this strategy are foreseen. The next chapter describes the methodology proposed for introducing an action learning and participatory approach in a primary school in Hong Kong.

CHAPTER FIVE

METHODOLOGY

5.1 INTRODUCTION

In Chapter Four I reviewed the implementation of citizenship education, particularly its implementation in England, China and Hong Kong. The QCA (1998) indicates that England is moving towards an active approach to citizenship education. China is apparently moving from a style of citizenship education based on slogans to a more practical and participatory approach. Hong Kong is facing a new educational reform in the 21st century. The vision and mission of the reform is the development of lifelong learning through learning to learn. The strategy for the implementation of citizenship education in Hong Kong is stipulated in two documents, namely *Learning to Learn – The Way Forward in Curriculum Development* (CDC, 2001) and *Curriculum Guide for Basic Education – Moral and Civic Education* (CDC, 2002a). Both documents indicated that the principles for effective learning and teaching citizenship education should be learner-centred and based on “useful practices” (p.67). In this sense, implementation of citizenship education should integrate theory with practice, and should be aligned with students’ experiences. The idea of useful practice is further spelled out in the *Curriculum Guide for Basic Education – Moral and Civic Education* (2002a) that schools should adopt the Life Event Approach

(CDC, 2002a, p.25).

On the other hand, another document *Learning for Life, Learning through Life – Reform proposals for the Education System in Hong Kong* published by the Education Commission (EC, 2000a) stated that whole-person development is the aim of education. It is consistent with this that the *Learning to Learn –The Way Forward in Curriculum Development* (CDC, 2001) document states that ‘All students should be entitled to the following five learning experiences that correspond to “ethics, intellect, physiques, social skills and aesthetics” for whole-person development. Moral and civic education and community service are the two essential experiences amongst the five. Through these experiences, the Curriculum Development Council believes that personal character and interpersonal skills, respect for others, perseverance, a sense of national identity, commitment and responsibility will be developed (CDC, 2001, p.20). These values become the important values to be developed in citizenship education as stipulated in the *Curriculum Guide for Basic Education -- Moral and Civic Education* (CDC, 2002a) (p.7). The document suggested that teachers could use life events to nurture these five values. The document further recommends that teachers adopt a learner-centred approach and to provide an authentic and active learning environment for the implementation of citizenship action. In sum, citizenship education in Hong Kong in the 21st century should involve active learning in an authentic environment.

This chapter aims to discuss (1) the purpose of my research study; (2) the selection of research methodology that best suits the study of effective learning and teaching of citizenship education in Hong Kong; and (3) the design of methodology for this study.

5.2 PURPOSES OF STUDY

5.2.1 *How far is an action learning approach feasible in the implementation of citizenship education in Hong Kong?*

The curriculum document *Learning to Learn – The Way Forward in Curriculum Development* published by the Curriculum Development Council of Hong Kong (2001) advocates that students should have opportunities to participate actively in their learning about citizenship. This document suggested that schools should optimize the learning opportunities for students and remove practices that constrain them (CDC, 2001, p.68). The document explained the term “learning opportunity” as “where and why students can learn or cannot learn” (p.68). The “constraints” are listed in the document as follows:

- We should provide a range of environments needed by students: the school, classroom, community, home, physical environment, Internet and work place. These are necessary for providing relevant, authentic and meaningful learning experiences to students.
- The government should help schools to improve physical qualities such as adequate and flexible use of space, ventilation, lighting and furnishings.

- Schools should ensure a safe and caring environment free from threats, humiliation and embarrassment. We should try to avoid behaviours that hurt the self-esteem, motivation and confidence of students.
- We should provide room for students to pursue collaborative and independent learning.
- We should respect students' diverse dispositions and achievements within the school ethos. (CDC, 2001, p.69)

The statements above clearly suggested that schools should change their traditional approach to teaching in order to meet the new challenges of educational reform. The document further stipulates that active participation would help students learn how to learn instead of being told what to learn. It is expected that necessary skills for good citizens such as critical thinking, decision-making, collaboration, etc. could be enhanced through active and participatory learning (CDC, 2001, p.89).

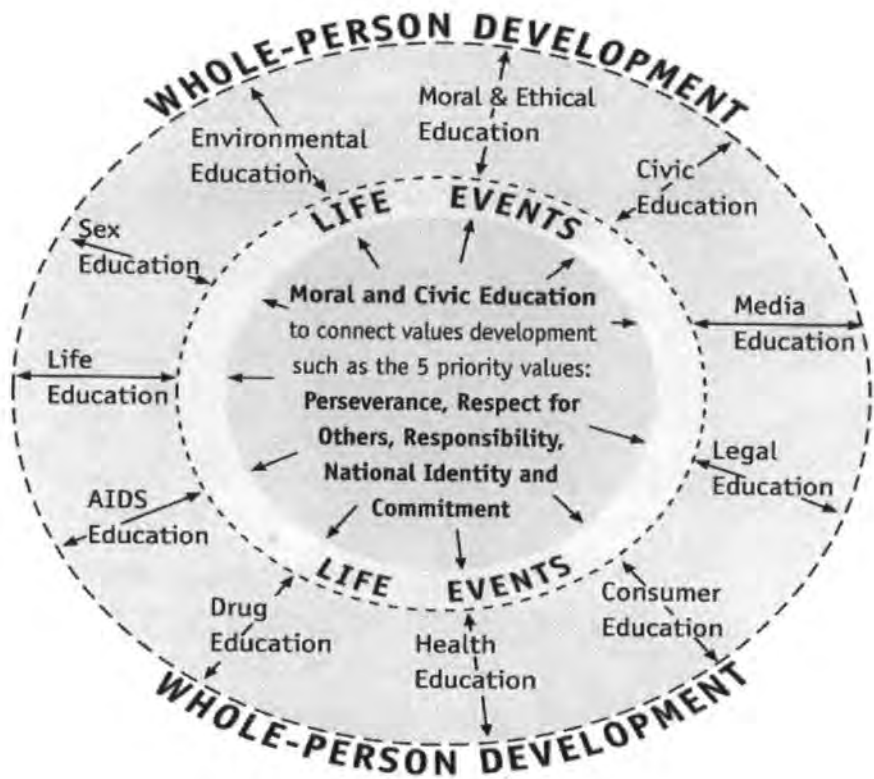
The Curriculum Development Council understood very well that the expectations listed above did not match with the current practice in schools. As a result, the *Learning to Learn – The Way Forward in Curriculum Development* (CDC, 2001) document recommended schools to change their teaching and learning strategies gradually. The document outlined a ten-year educational reform which can be divided into three phases, viz. short-term (from 2001-2 to 2005-06), medium-term (from 2006-07 to 2010-11) and long-term (beyond 2011) (Appendix 5.1). In the short-term stage, the Curriculum Development Council (CDC)

recommended the schools and teachers to infuse generic skills, for example critical thinking, creativity and communication, into the learning and teaching of school subjects. This would help to develop independent learning capabilities suited to pupils' styles, needs and interests, and also foster whole-person development. After the start of more effective learning and teaching in schools, CDC expected schools to continue to raise the effectiveness of learning and teaching, and improve the independent learning capabilities that students would need for life-long learning (CDC, 2001, pp.13-14). However, the *Learning to Learn* document did not give any detailed explanation of how students could participate actively in learning. The document merely provided a list of DOS and DON'TS in the document (Appendix 5.2) regarding the strategies of how to promote this vision (CDC, 2001, p.68).

The other document, *Curriculum Guide in the Curriculum Guide for Basic Education -- Moral and Civic Education* (CDC, 2002a) put a lot of emphasis on the cross-curricular approach in implementing citizenship education in Hong Kong (Diagram 5.1) and the importance of nurturing the five moral values in the first short-term stage of educational reform. Section 3.2.2 of the Moral and Civic Education Curriculum Guide recommends schools to infuse life events in school activities and school curriculum, or treat the life event as a special project with a particular theme. The document also specifies that the implementation of moral and

civic education must be child-centred. Teachers are reminded to provide as many authentic learning environments as possible to optimize students' learning and to study each issue from different perspectives (CDC, 2002a, pp.2-10).

Diagram 5.1: The Conceptual Framework for Implementation of Moral and Civic Education



(Adapted from Curriculum Guide for Basic Education, 2002a, p.7)

In section 3.3.2, the document suggests some opportunities for learning and teaching of citizenship education such as through community service; civic education lessons; the Key Learning Areas (KLA); school activities such as class and school assemblies; life wide learning and school ethos to nurture the five moral values (2002a, pp.13-17). Under each learning opportunity, some examples are given.

For example, in the description of using community service as a channel to learn, the document suggests that schools should organize activities like classroom cleaning, peer tutors and librarians, etc. to nurture positive attitudes and values. Nevertheless, the examples given are rather brief and general. There are no concrete suggestions to schools about how and what they can do in the implementation of participatory approaches to citizenship education. Furthermore, what is the actual meaning of active citizenship and a participatory approach advocated by CDC? If we study the *Learning to Learn* (CDC, 2001) and the *Curriculum Guide for Basic Education -- Moral and Civic Education* (CDC, 2002a) from line to line, the recommended strategy is active citizenship and a participatory approach to learning and citizenship education which means providing opportunities for students to learn in an authentic environment; learning must be learner-centred and can be implemented through a cross-curricular approach. In addition, schools can enhance the five moral values and attitudes through community service. However, whether Hong Kong teachers are either ready willing or able to adapt this rationale for active citizenship education approach as stipulated in the three educational documents published in 2000 and 2002 is in doubt.

According to the research results by Yip (1998), the major constraints in the effective implementation of citizenship education in Hong Kong primary schools are:

children are unmotivated and not interested in the citizenship education programmes; teachers have misconceptions about citizenship education; their misconceptions are that citizenship education is not important in the primary sector and is restricted to political aspects; their understanding of the main civic education topics is inadequate; they have insufficient mastery of the basic skills in conducting civic learning activities in class, and last but not least, there is a lack of resources for teaching and learning in their schools. These findings clearly indicate that the implementation of effective citizenship education represents a considerable challenge for Hong Kong schools.

Chai Yip (2003) reported a survey on the implementation of civic education in 13 primary schools in 1999. The survey illustrated that the strategies used by teachers in citizenship education were didactic and teacher-centred. The results of this survey further support the view that implementing an active and participatory approach to citizenship education is likely to be a long and complex process.

Since the present teaching of citizenship education is not consistent with the expectation in *Learning to Learn* (CDC, 2001), the resolution to this problem is to change the teaching strategy. Thus, what teaching strategy can address the vision and mission outlined by the Education Commission and the Curriculum Development Council? As argued in chapter four section 4.6.2, action learning benefits children in learning about citizenship as action learning emphasizes collaboration and reflection.

Through working together with members, students are able to apply their knowledge and skills, and gain a better understanding of the world and the community, thus, enhancing their sense of social responsibility. Furthermore, the role of teachers in action learning pedagogy requires a move away from the traditional teacher-centred, didactic method towards learner-centred, interactive ways of teaching and learning. The teacher acts as a facilitator, helping students to see why and how to learn, instead of solely what to learn. However, action learning may be more widely practiced in western countries than in Hong Kong; the suitability of this strategy for the teaching environment of Hong Kong must be open to doubt. For this reason, a major purpose of this study is to investigate the feasibility of action learning in citizenship education in a primary school.

5.2.2 *Is action learning pedagogy effective in encouraging students' learning citizenship education?*

As discussed in chapter four section 4.6, the distinctive features of action learning pedagogy are collaboration, participation and reflection. The coverage of action learning is wide; participatory approaches, experiential learning, child-centred learning, service learning are all in the family of action learning. All these features are explicitly mentioned in the *Learning to Learn* (CDC, 2001) and *Curriculum Guide for Basic Education* (CDC, 2002a) documents. In this sense, the implementation of

citizenship education should be through an action learning approach. If action learning is so effective, then what benefits can students gain from action learning pedagogy? Taking into consideration that the vision of citizenship education in Hong Kong is the preparation of future citizens who are well equipped with necessary knowledge and skills through active participation (CDC, 2002a), therefore the crucial elements for this research will be related to knowledge, skills and values. With regard to knowledge, I need to investigate whether or not action learning pedagogy will enhance students' understanding in learning. In the structure of knowledge, when students are involved actively in the process of learning, they are able to transform un-processed data into internalised understandings (Gredler, 2001, pp.181-200; Education Department of Western Australia, 1981, pp.12-14). In this sense, understanding is placed at a higher level in the structure of knowledge. I also need to explore whether opportunities are better provided for students to acquire and apply the necessary skills in an action learning pedagogy. An action learning pedagogy specially emphasizes the importance of collaborative skills. Piaget (1997) claimed that cooperation and collaborative learning suppress children's egocentrism and moral realism (pp. 404-406), hence, it can be a channel to develop social skill. As defined by McGill & Beaty (1996) students learn with and from each other by working on real problems and reflecting on their own experiences (p.21). In that

sense, reflection is the final product of learning. From reflection, students can generalize their knowledge (Kolb, 1984). Therefore, an objective of the research is to assess whether an action learning approach can be effective in the teaching and learning of citizenship education.

5.2.3 *What changes will action learning bring to students?*

The power of action learning is learning through experience in order to *change* rather than simply repeating previous patterns (McGill and Beaty, 1996, p.22). Hence, it is worth finding out whether action learning will bring about changes. In fact, the Curriculum Development Council is expecting gradual change in the development of the whole-person (CDC, 2002a, p.14). It is important to see whether this expectation is realistic.

Apart from changes in students, it is worth exploring whether teachers are able and willing to accept changes in learning and teaching. Teachers often resist change and feel threatened by theory. To what extent will they accept action learning? From the teachers' point of view, theory is often not applicable in classroom.

Therefore, the study of 'change' is a crucial focus of investigation in this study. The 'changes' to be investigated in this study are mainly in skills and value changes, for example whether students have demonstrated better inquiry skills, social skills,

collaborative skills, etc and the attitudes of teachers to the strategy of action learning.

5.2.4 *The Research Questions:*

For the above reasons, I decided to conduct a pilot, experimental study in a primary school in order to address the following questions:

1. How far is an action learning approach feasible in the implementation of citizenship education in primary schools?
2. Is an action-learning approach effective in citizenship education? What are children's reactions to an action-learning approach?
3. What changes has action learning brought about in citizenship education? Are there any difficulties encountered in the implementation of an action learning approach? What are they and are there any resolutions to these problems?
4. What benefits does an action learning approach bring to citizenship education? What are the implications of the results of this study for the implementation of citizenship education in Hong Kong?

5.3 ACTION RESEARCH AS THE RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Throwing light on the above questions will provide information with which to discuss the future development of citizenship education in Hong Kong. To throw light on these questions, empirical data has to go beyond just producing some figures on how

many teachers support action learning and how many don't, because such data only illustrate teachers' intentions but cannot display the feasibility and reality of action learning. Hence, a qualitative research method is likely to provide the most suitable methodology for the above study.

It is argued in this section that action research is an appropriate method to explore the possibility and feasibility of action learning approach in citizenship education in the primary school context. The term action research, described by McTaggart (1997), was first invented by Lewin (1946).

The reason for choosing an action research method in the study of effectiveness of action learning is because the nature of action research is to connect educational theory with professional practice.

5.3.1 Characteristics of Action Research

Elliott (1991) advocates the importance of action research in educational reform or teaching improvement. He says,

“First, teaching is conceived as a form of research aimed at understanding how to translate educational values into concrete forms of practice...Second, since it is action hypotheses about how to translate values into practice which are being tested, one cannot separate the research process of testing hypotheses from the process of evaluating teaching. Third...the development of curriculum programmes occurs through the reflective practice of teaching...”

(Elliott, 1991, p.54).

It was not only Elliott's statement that stimulated me to choose action research as my research method: Reason and Bradbury (2001a) point out the value of action research as "It seeks to bring together action and reflection, theory and practice, in participation with others, in the pursuit of practical solutions to issues of pressing concern to people, and more generally the flourishing of individual persons and their communities" (p.1).

5.3.1.1 Action research aims to realize educational values

John Elliott (1995) points out that action research has a pedagogical aim which embodies educational ideals. These ideals constitute "an educationally worthwhile process of teaching and learning" (p.6). All those people who participate in the research are committed to realizing the ideals in practice. In other words, action research aims to put educational theories into practice. In the process of testing the theory, the researcher has authentic understanding of the theory in order to improve it. McTaggart (1997) reveals that theorizing practice is one of the principles for participatory action research (p.36). Zuber-Skerritt (1996) shares a similar opinion with Elliott and McTaggart. She regards action research as a way to internalize theory and practice. The objective of this study is to test the feasibility of action learning, and is therefore consistent with this feature of action research.

5.3.1.2 The researcher takes an active participatory role in the process of research

Reason and Bradbury (2001b) assert that “action research is a participatory, democratic process concerned with developing practical knowing in the pursuit of worthwhile human purposes, grounded in a participatory worldview which we believe is emerging at this historical moment” (p.1). Winter (1996) terms action research as participatory in its underlying features. McTaggart (1997) advocates that action research is not research done on other people but a research by particular people on their own work (p.39). Elliott (1991) points out that teachers are researchers at the same time. In sum, one of the characteristics of action research is that the researcher takes active participation in the process of research so that he/she can collect useful data and obtain authentic understanding in connection to his/her research area. As I aimed to conduct an experimental action learning project in a primary school to investigate its feasibility and the reaction of students, I would work with the teachers in that school. Though I was only a visitor in the experimental school, my participation in the field would be active. On the other hand, I would have to collect data to address the questions listed above. All these requirements are consistent with the characteristic of action research.

5.3.1.3 The objective of action research is improvement and change.

Lewin (1946) contends that action research is a method for exploring and solving

problems. Involvement and participation enable teachers to solve problems and change. Through the experience gained in the classroom, teachers reflect on their teaching and make improvement. McTaggart (1997) regards action research as an agent of change and improvements. Peter Park (2001) points out the significant feature of participatory research as to bring about changes by improving the material circumstances of affected people. McNiff (1988) explains the rationale of action research as “the social basis of action research is involvement; the educational basis is improvement. Its operations demand changes” (p.3). McNiff’s view explains that the prime purpose of action research is to seek improvement and changes through reflective participation of the researcher. In this connection, the crucial element of action research is reflection on teaching in order to make changes or improvement. This rationale is well supported by John Elliott. According to Elliott (1991), the fundamental aim of action research is “to improve practice rather than to produce knowledge” and “to initiate change, to innovate, is a necessary precondition of action research” (p.49-53). This rationale suits my purpose of applying action learning to citizenship education in a primary school. My major concern is whether or not action learning can improve learning about citizenship. The selection of action research as the main methodology is thus logical and necessary.

5.3.1.4 Reflection is the focus

Another distinctive feature of action research is reflective practice. As reflection on teaching will help in improving teaching, action research is particularly suitable for teachers in the classroom. McNiff (1988) defines action research as:

A form of self-reflective enquiry undertaken by participants (teachers, students or principals, for example) in social (including educational) situations in order to improve the rationality and justice of (a) their own social or educational practices, (b) their understanding of these practices, and (c) the situations (and institutions) in which these practices are carried out. (p.2)

I particularly like the views of Reason and Bradbury (2001a) that “action research is about working towards practical outcomes, and also about creating new forms of understanding, since action without reflection and understanding is blind, just as theory without action is meaningless” (p.2). The implication is that if teaching is routine, works like a machine with no empathy, no reflection, it is meaningless.

Elliott (1991) argues that professional reflection should include both philosophical and ethical reflections. According to him, philosophical reflection enables teachers to reconstruct their concepts and values in ways which progressively clarify practical problems and possibilities. Ethical reflection is an integral part of

philosophical reflection because improvement and change cannot improve the methodology without empirical data as a basis, thus, philosophical reflection cannot exist independently of ethical reflection. He advocates that “If practical reflection is solely construed as a form of technical or instrumental reasoning, then there is little room not only for philosophical self-reflection about values, but also for the ethical dimension of social practices” (1991. p.52). Therefore, action research constitutes a resolution of theory into practice as perceived by teachers. Theory thus is not dissociated from realities which confront practitioners. With the evidence obtained from action research, it is hoped that teachers in Hong Kong primary schools will gain a better understanding of action learning in the teaching of citizenship education.

Lewin (1946), Elliott (1991) and Kemmis’ models of action provide the underpinning idea when designing this study of action learning. As my aim is to improve the teaching of citizenship education, this research method is appropriate for seeking answers to the questions. If action research is employed in this study, it will enable me to experience whether or not action learning is possible and feasible in the environment of a Hong Kong primary school. It will also enable me to understand the factors that contribute to the success of action learning or vice versa.

5.3.2 *The Lewin, Kemmis and Elliott’s models of action research*

In what ways, then, and how are Lewin’s, Elliott’s, Kemmin’s models of action

research different or similar?

5.3.2.1 Kurt Lewin’s model (1946)

Van Elteren (1992) regards Lewin’s model as “an integration of theory and empirical research on one hand and direct application of the findings on the other” (p.35).

McNiff (2002) described the Lewinian model as a spiral of steps involving planning, fact-finding (or reconnaissance) and execution. It was developed as a four-step framework of planning, acting, observing and reflecting (diagram 5.3). This action-reflection cycle later forms the basis for more definitions of action research.

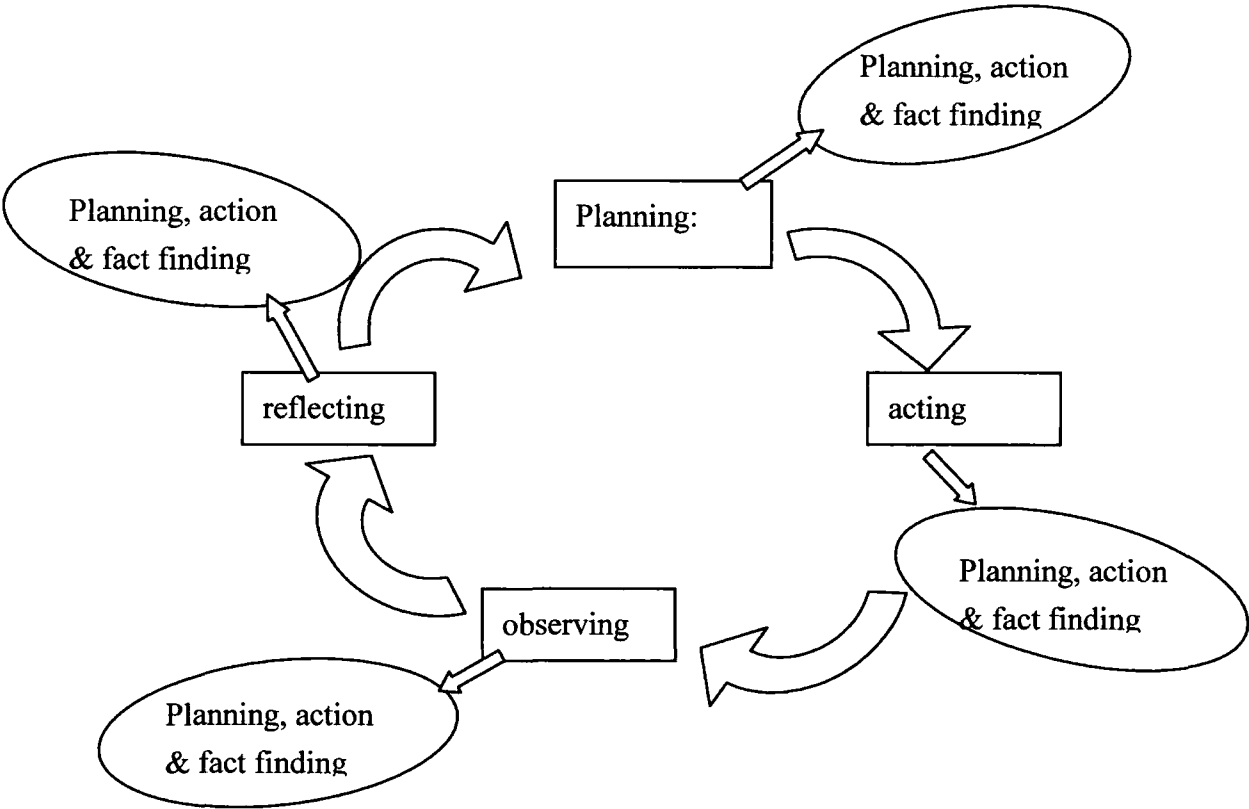


Diagram 5.2 Kurt Lewin’s Action-reflecting Cycle

The first step of Lewin's model was to examine the general idea in relation to the means available for reaching the objective, including fact-finding about it. Based on the general idea, an overall plan was developed. After the first action step, evaluation was carried out. Based on the evaluation results, modification of the original idea might be necessary. The second step is another cycle. Lewin himself said, "each of which is composed of a circle of planning, action, and fact-finding about the result of the action" (1946, p.206). Evaluation of the results in each step is crucial and fundamental because it provides information about an action, whether it should proceed or go backward. According to Lewin (1946), it also serves the purpose of "preventing us from making the wrong conclusions" (p.202). To conclude, Lewin's model was a four-step cycle: planning, acting, observing and evaluating, each step was composed of planning, action, and fact finding about the result of the action, thus creating a spiral of action research steps.

5.3.2.2 Stephen Kemmis's model (1988)

Stephen Kemmis's model of action research was, in fact, based on Lewin's model. McNiff (2002) describes his model as a self-reflective spiral of planning, acting, observing, reflecting and re-planning as the basis for understanding how to take action to improve an educational situation (diagram 5.3).

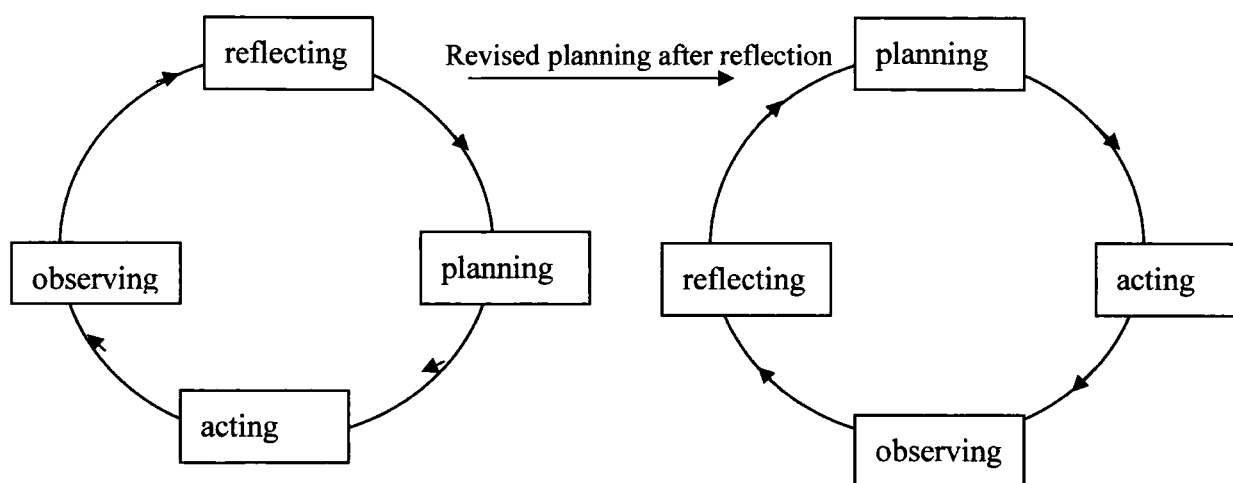


Diagram 5.3 Kemmis's model of action research

Kemmis's model has been criticized for its linear sequence, and because it did not allow space for irregularities such as new ideas or problems that occurred in the process of research. In her critique, McNiff (2002) said, "The model is presented as if life goes along one path only...The model does not recognize the existence of related issues, nor present options for dealing with them: what did he do about his "need to keep control in ways that the class expects?"(p.48). McNiff's criticism was mainly because the field of her action research area was nursing. Problems or new ideas can happen at any time. Her critique is worth considering because school is a miniature society, problems and irregularities occur very often. This is particularly true in Hong Kong today because education is still under reform. Many new initiatives have been introduced since 1997. If a teacher-researcher only sticks to one direction, he/she might lose his/her direction. In this sense, when a teacher

adopts Kemmis's model, the teacher should be prepared for change. McNiff's example of "Teaching Context" which was developed from Kemmis's model provides a useful reference for teachers. At each stage, she kept on asking herself what she had to do, and if things did not appear as expected, what she could do.

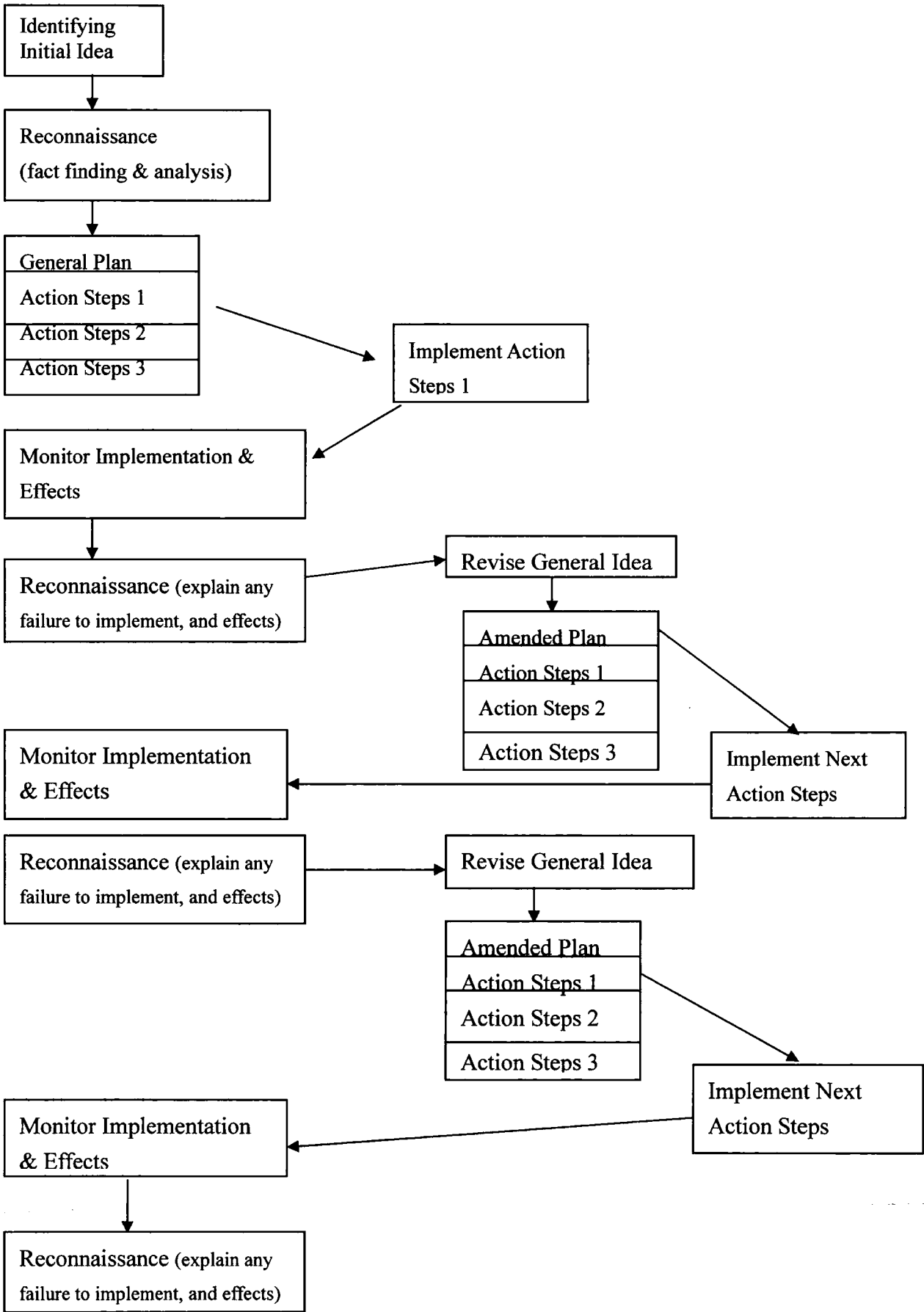
5.3.2.3 John Elliott's model (1991)

Elliott (1991) basically agreed with Kurt Lewin's action-reflection spiral model, but his model was more detailed. He criticized the 'general idea' that Lewin's model is fixed in advance, that 'reconnaissance' is merely fact-finding, and that 'implementation' is a fairly straightforward process. On the other hand, he suggested:

- The general idea should be allowed to shift.
- Reconnaissance should involve analysis as well as fact-finding and should constantly recur in the spiral of activities, rather than occur only at the beginning.
- Implementation of an action step is not always easy, and one should not proceed to evaluate the effects of an action until one has monitored the extent to which it has been implemented. (1991, p.70)

Elliott then revised Lewin's model as in diagram 5.4 which shows more changes of plan after each step of reconnaissance. This explains that Elliott emphasizes the importance of reconnaissance in action research.

Diagram 5.4 John Elliott's action research model (Source: Elliott (1991))



These three models comprise the steps of 'planning', 'acting', 'observing' and 'evaluating'. Lewin's model which composes one action-reflection cycle, is simpler and more straightforward in comparison with the other two; Kemmis has a major focus on 'evaluating' or 'reflecting', while Elliott emphasizes the function and importance of 'fact finding and analysis'. Lewin's action-reflection cycle may not allow for the complexity of my study which is a two-year study in an experimental school. My study will comprise three cycles; first the cycle of experimental teaching, second the classroom teaching by the experimental teacher and third service learning. Each cycle requires planning, implementing and evaluating. Based on the reflection from the previous cycle, I revised the plan of the next cycle, thus, my research plan is more or less similar to the Kemmis model. However, having considered the strength of John Elliott's model that emphasizes the importance of reconnaissance, so my action research model is basically generated from Kurt Lewin's idea of the action-reflection cycle, but has more emphasis on the reconnaissance and reflection as articulated by Kemmis and Elliott.

5.4 THE DESIGN OF RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Having determined that action research would be the methodology for this study did not mean that research could start. There were some obstacles to study that I needed

to sort out first before the research project could start.

5.4.1 *Reconnaissance of obstacles to action learning*

To investigate the possibility and feasibility of action learning in primary context, the best method is to study the real situation. However, it is not at all easy to find answers to the questions mentioned above. There are many foreseeable technical problems. One major problem was my background. I am a teacher trainer, not a primary school teacher. That meant I needed to find a school which would be prepared to introduce action learning. Then, what school should I choose to study?

A second key question concerns teachers' insufficient mastery of skills in citizenship education. Action learning is not a new teaching strategy but the survey conducted by Chai-Yip (2003) illustrated that teachers' knowledge of action learning is limited. This limitation originates from teachers' psychological belief that theory is usually not applicable in reality (Elliott, 1991, pp.46-48). This may explain why teachers often refuse to try a new strategy. This attitude became a major obstacle to the study. The subsequent question was with whom should I work. Adoption of action learning and evaluation means more work for teachers. Would teachers agree to this additional workload? How could I convince this teacher to adopt an action learning approach in their teaching on top of their very heavy existing workload?

A third question was related to curriculum. Given that citizenship education

is not an independent subject in primary schools, how could I link the formal curriculum with action learning in the citizenship education component?

Regarding the choice of school, there were several principles to be observed. First, the school should not be an outstanding school. This school should be an average, ordinary school so that the results of the study would be more convincing. Second, the academic standard of students could not be too low, as that could result in the misconception that action learning was for lower achievers. Third, the selected school should not reject the idea of action learning. Without the support of the school principal and teachers, though many of them might not need to be involved, the study could not be carried out. Eventually I chose a primary school located in a housing estate in a new town. I chose this school because this school was a project school in my previous citizenship education project.

The next key question to consider was teachers' insufficient mastery skills in citizenship education and limited knowledge of action learning. To remedy these limitations, one solution was to conduct a training course. However, the feasibility and practicability of theory is always queried by teachers. Another problem is that teachers frequently complain about their heavy workload. Attending training means that they will have less time for work. It is common in Hong Kong that teachers are reluctant to attend training courses during their teaching hours. Having considered

the teachers' concerns, and also wishing to test the feasibility of action learning myself, I decided to teach the class of students myself that I aimed to observe and invite teachers to attend my demonstration lessons. My role in the demonstration would be that of a teacher. Teachers attending the demonstrations would serve as the observers. After their observation of my lessons, discussion on action learning would be arranged. In the discussions, I aimed to collect feedback from teachers and plan the future stages of the study. It was also an opportunity for me to clarify some of the teachers' misconceptions. As a result, a three-month demonstration was arranged in the research school.

General Studies¹ has been identified as the most suitable subject in the primary curriculum for implementing citizenship education. A grade 5 class (age 10-11) was involved in the study. This class of students became the experimental group. To link the demonstration lessons with the school's schedule and curriculum, and in light of the definition of action learning, the topic "Environmental Protection" was selected as the theme of study so that both teachers and students would be able to follow my teaching. Each demonstration lesson lasted for two hours and was scheduled on every Wednesday afternoon². The purpose of such arrangement was not to disturb both

¹ General Studies is a core subject in primary sector. This subject was first implemented in primary in 1996, integrating primary social studies, science and health education into one subject. The ultimate aim of this subject is to develop good citizens through knowledge, skill and values.

² In Hong Kong, many primary schools are half-day schools. The school premises are shared by the morning session and afternoon session. Morning session usually commences at 8.00 a.m. and ends at 12.30 p.m. Afternoon session usually starts at 1.10 p.m. and finishes at 5.40 p.m. Teachers and

teachers and students' normal schedule of teaching and learning. Four teachers teaching General Studies were assigned by the school to attend the demonstration lessons.

5.4.2 *Action research plan*

McTaggart (1997) reminds action researchers to start with a small research project and develop through the self-reflective spiral. Each cycle should comprise of planning, acting, observing, and reflecting. He suggests that researchers should be explicit in data collection: "to collect some initial data in an area of general interest (a reconnaissance), then to reflect and make a plan for changed action or to begin with an exploratory change, collect data of what happens, reflect, and then build more refined plans for action" (pp.34-35).

Winter (1996) points out that there are six principles to observe, namely, the reflexive critique, dialectic critique, collaboration, risking disturbance, creating plural structures, and internalizing theory and practice.

With reference to Lewin (1946), Kemmis and Taggart (1988) and Elliott (1991), the steps of the experimental teaching of action learning were designed as in diagram 5.5. After studying the literature related to citizenship education, I drafted the framework of the whole study. According to the theory of action research, a

students of the morning session are free in the afternoon.

spiral approach to the action research plan was constructed as follows.

5.4.2.1 Cycle One :

Identifying initial idea:

The general idea of the action research was generalized from several government documents concerning the development of citizenship education such as QCA (1998); Education Department (1996), and CDC (2000). The general conclusion drawn from the study of these documents and literature was that action learning could, in principle, be an effective pedagogy in the learning about citizenship.

Reconnaissance:

After I had confirmed the research area, I began studying the literature reporting the implementation of citizenship education throughout the world. I also used the experience collected from my own teaching practice supervision and the research results of previous surveys of the implementation of citizenship education in primary schools as reference when designing the research questions and the overall plan.

General Plan:

I investigated the possibility of working with a primary school as the experimental school. To be convincing, the first criterion was that the school should not be exceptional. It would be less convincing if I selected an outstanding school to develop this research project.

Revised planning:

The original plan was to study the teaching of an experimental teacher right at the beginning of the research project. When discussed the plan with the school principal, she had reservations about the plan as teachers had limited knowledge of action learning. In this connection, the results of the research thus might be invalid. In view of this difficulty, I determined to conduct a demonstration of action learning pedagogy with two purposes. The first was to test the feasibility of action learning approach in primary schools; secondly, the demonstration teaching was to serve as a demonstration of action learning pedagogy to teachers. In this sense, the teachers would develop better knowledge of this pedagogy.

Implementing the revised plan:

I constructed the plan for experimental teaching in an average primary school. I requested the experimental school to provide one class of students for this study. Teachers were invited to serve as observers. With the support from the experimental school, the experimental teaching was conducted for three months, under the main theme 'Environmental Protection'. Methods of data collection were mainly based on observation, students' portfolios and diaries, interviews with teachers and the experimental group.

Cycle Two

Reconnaissance: Based on the data collected from the experimental teaching, the second phase of action research plan was constructed. The research objectives were specified and the methods of data collection were designed. This step was important because it would affect the development of the study in the later stage.

Implementing classroom teaching:

The next step was classroom teaching using an action learning approach, conducted by a teacher of the experimental school. Before implementation, I had close contacts with the experimental teacher for the reason of planning, acting and evaluating. The notion of reflection was emphasized. Data from the teacher, students and parents were collected to evaluate the result of this step.

Cycle Three

Reconnaissance:

Before drafting the third cycle of action research, I discussed the plan of service learning with the teacher in-charge of curriculum development. I visited several institutions to discuss the possibility of a service learning arrangement. A special school for seriously mentally retarded children showed an interest in a service learning project. The plan for service learning was then drafted.

Implementing:

A self-constructed questionnaire was designed. Students were asked to answer the questionnaire before and after the service project to investigate whether any of their values had changed. Four teachers were assigned by the school as assistants to the project. Data from students, teachers and parents were also collected.

Evaluating the project:

An evaluation of the whole project was conducted. A wide range of methods for data collection such as reflective journal, observation, interviews were adopted. Students had to submit their reflective journals after each part of their service to the handicapped children. Teachers, students, parents and the school principal were interviewed. The research outcomes could then lead to another phase of research.



Diagram 5.5 Design of Action Research Based on Action-Reflection Cycle

5.4.3 *Programmes of the experimental teaching*

As action learning covers child-centred learning, participatory learning and service learning, the experimental teaching programme comprised all these components in order to demonstrate to teachers the meaning of action learning in reality. The experimental programmes were conducted both inside and outside the classroom. The theme of the teaching was on 'Environmental Protection', reinforcing the four 'Rs' of environmental protection concepts, viz. 'reduce', 'reuse', 'recycle' and 'reproduce', that students had learnt in the school-wide environmental protection project. The original plan of the programme was to have one activity in each lesson. However, in the lesson subsequent to the briefing session, I discovered that the students were lacking in social inquiry skills. I felt the need to teach students the methods of conducting a survey before sending them out to inquire into a social problem. This additional teaching caused a change of plan. As a result, I rescheduled the plan and cancelled some of the activities in order to fit the timetable. Activities such as an air pollution test, and banquet for 'rich' and 'poor' were cancelled. The details and aims of the rescheduled plan of activities are spelled out below:

1. Briefing

The briefing session was mainly on the clarification of the concepts of the 4 Rs and to

inform students what they would be going to learn in the three months, the skills required for activities such as inquiry skill, observation skills, and the method of keeping their own portfolio, etc.

A workshop on inquiry skill training was arranged for the subsequent briefing session.

2. Social inquiry

This activity aimed to provide a opportunity for students to understand the problem of land pollution in the community they were living in. The other aim was to invite students to think of resolutions to this problem. It was expected that after understanding the cause of land pollution, the concepts of the four Rs could be reinforced and put into action by students in their daily life.

Students were grouped into four or five and had to design the method of data collection before conducting the surveys. After a week, they were required to present their findings and had to report the results of their studies and resolutions to the problems.

3. Water test

This was an outdoor activity. The school is located near a river which had had serious pollution problem for many years. Students would visit the upper, middle and lower parts of the river to collect water samples to test the degree of water pollution.

The aim of this field-based activity was to provide an opportunity for students to understand the problem of water pollution in the community. It was anticipated that through the field-based learning, students would be able to identify the sources of pollution and suggest resolutions to this problem. It was another aim of the activity that students would realize the consequence of not keeping the environment clean. As a result, they would take action, i.e. keep the environment clean and tidy. A discussion session was arranged to let students discuss the findings of the experiment and the resolutions to the problem of water pollution.

4. Recycling papers workshop

The aim of this workshop was to reinforce the concept of 'reuse' and 'recycle' in environmental protection through making recycled paper. Students were taught how to make use of unwanted newspapers and to recycle them. Discussion was arranged after the workshop.

5. Service in school

To reinforce students' concepts of 'reduce' and 'reuse', students would participate in a campaign to exchange used school uniforms. As children grow fast, their school uniforms are soon outgrown. Parents and students of the whole school would give away their outgrown uniforms to the younger ones so that resources could be fully utilized. This campaign had been conducted by the parents' association in the past

years. In order to let students experience the value of collaboration and the process of operating a project, the school let the students conduct this service project themselves. Children had to plan all the activities which included division of labour, publicity, collection and distribution of school uniforms, recording, etc. Evaluation of this activity was arranged in the subsequent session.

5.5 DATA COLLECTION

Four teachers were interviewed to discuss their observations. There were three major topics for discussion, namely, the feasibility of action learning, the reactions of students, and the outcomes of learning. Their feedback was important to the design of the study after demonstrations. Besides teachers' feedback, response from students were also influential in the study.

The teachers as observers were interviewed four times during the demonstration teaching. The reason for only four interviews being scheduled was mainly because of the teachers' tight schedule of work. Besides interviews and discussions, teachers were encouraged to give feedback in writing. The discussion questions in the interviews were basically related to the three topics aforesaid. These questions were:

1. Feasibility

- a. Do you think action learning can be adopted in your teaching? Why or

why not?

- b. What are the conditions for successful action learning?
- c. Would you like to try action learning in your teaching? Why?

2. Students' reaction

- a. Do you think action learning strategy is effective in the respect of developing knowledge, skills and attitudes?
- b. Have you heard any feedback from students about action learning?
- c. Do you think keeping portfolio/diaries will help students in their learning?

3. Learning outcomes

- a. In what aspect do you think action learning can enhance students' learning?
- b. Do you think students' inquiry skill, decision-making skill, collaborative skill, the attitude of care and concern of society are improved and enhanced through action learning?

4. Others

- a. Do you have any suggestions about action learning?
- b. What is the role of the teacher in action learning?
- c. Do you think the change of role of teacher will benefit students' learning?

Do you support such a change?

Students' feedback on action learning is also important. As a result, casual and

semi-structured interviews with students were also scheduled after teaching. The questions were about their feeling about this approach to learning, their acceptance of action learning and their perception of keeping a portfolio.

Students' portfolios were important evidence of the feasibility of action learning. They were required to keep records of every activity. They were told that the records should include the following items:

1. Name of the activity
2. Date and venue
3. Process of the activity
4. What is the environmental problem identified?
5. Does this problem touch my life?
6. How to solve this problem?
7. My feeling

5.6 PLANNING AND IMPLEMENTING THE ACTION LEARNING PROJECT

The experience gained from the experimental teaching showed that action learning was feasible in Hong Kong. Thus, the actual planning of the action learning project was designed after the demonstrations. Subsequently, the action learning project was conducted throughout the whole academic year. The period of classroom

teaching by the school teacher who had attended the experimental teaching lasted from November to April. That teacher was invited to perform action learning in the teaching of General Studies. In order to ensure a smooth link with my own teaching, she had to teach the experimental group in the subsequent year. In other words, our roles were changed at this stage. The teacher, who originally was the observer, became an 'insider', and I served as the 'outsider' to observe her teaching.

Since the teacher did not have substantial theoretical understanding of action learning, face to face tutorials on the rationale for action learning were given before the commencement of teaching. As with the experimental group, the teacher was requested to keep a teaching log. The framework of the log was given to the teacher. The teacher then planned her schedule of teaching to identify the activities that would be suitable and appropriate for action learning. To ensure that the teacher had adopted action learning, she was requested to submit her lesson planning to me in advance. For the sake of data collection, some of her teaching would be recorded and observed.

Having mentioned before that service learning is a kind of action learning, a service learning project in a special school for seriously mentally handicapped children was arranged. The reasons for selecting this school for service were two. First, the special school always looked for outsiders to serve their children so that the

mentally retarded children would have more opportunities for close contact with society. Second, the school wished to run a project related to environmental protection. Based on these reasons, the experimental group would conduct a service project in this special school for three months. The special school would provide manpower and financial support to this project. Taking into consideration that some parents might dislike their children serving seriously mentally retarded children, therefore, this service project was on voluntary basis.

5.7 EVALUATING THE ACTION LEARNING PROJECT

Several methods were used to evaluate the action learning project, namely, observation, interviews, portfolios and diaries, and questionnaire. The purpose of evaluation was to monitor the implementation of the project, to see whether change of planning was necessary, and to learn from the results.

5.7.1 *Observations*

The feasibility of action learning depends on good planning. However, the process of delivery is also important, for example, if the teacher adopts a traditional role, the outcome will be no different from didactic teaching. In action learning, the teacher's role is a facilitator rather than a teacher. In this regard, observation lessons were arranged in order to give feedback to the teacher.

In the observations, not only was the teacher observed, students' reactions and behaviours were also under observation. All the observation lessons were taped and recorded. The main purpose was to collect evidence of the feasibility of action learning. The other purpose was to facilitate the discussion with the teacher so that she would have a clearer picture of what happened, the reasons for successful teaching or vice versa.

5.7.2 *Interviewing*

Interviewing is a way of finding what the situation looks like from other points of view. Formal and informal interviews were conducted. For formal interviews, both structured and semi-structured questions were designed beforehand. As advised by John Elliott (1991), a sample of students should be interviewed frequently in the classroom context (p.80). Therefore, after each observation, I interviewed two to three students. These interviews usually were semi-structured.

From the interviews with the General Studies teacher, I gained an understanding of her perception of action learning compared with traditional teaching. Her responses helped to elucidate the effectiveness of and difficulties encountered in action learning. From the interviews with other teachers, I obtained more data about teachers' perceptions of action learning. I could also seek opinions from teachers about whether students had shown attitude change after the implementation of action

learning. To seek information about the feasibility of implementation of action learning, besides interviewing teachers, I also interviewed the school principal and parents.

The informal interviews were usually conversations in an informal environment, for example, on the way to service learning, etc. The interviewees were students, teachers, janitors, staff in the service context. The objectives in conducting informal interviews were to collect data about students' behaviours beyond the classroom. These data were important in explaining the feasibility and effectiveness of action learning.

5.7.3 *Portfolios and diaries*

These were important evidence in evaluating the effectiveness and feasibility of the action learning project. Both the General Studies teacher and the experimental group were asked to keep diaries. Besides diaries, students had to keep portfolios as well. A portfolio was a collection of students' work which included worksheets, activities records, children's observations, their social inquiry reports, etc. The diaries were intended to illuminate the process of activity, observations, interpretations, feelings, and reflections.

5.7.4 *Questionnaire*

After the demonstration lessons, from the evidence displayed in students' portfolios, field notes and their responses in interviews, I found that the experimental group had a serious problem in cooperating and collaborating with each others. The majority of students in the experimental group were very independent; half of the class were very able children. Their independent attitude resulted in lack of collaboration. Moreover, they did not show respect to others, they were not disciplined, and in general they lacked civic and social concern. In order to investigate whether action learning would change their attitudes and perceptions of moral values I constructed a questionnaire which consisted of two parts. Both parts required responses on a four point Likert scale. The first part aimed to investigate the attitudes of the experimental group on five aspects, namely: (1) collaboration, (2) respect for others, (3) self-regulation, (4) civic and social concern, and (5) participation. The second part was on civic and moral values. These questions sought information about the children's perceptions of these values.

The questionnaire was given to the experimental group before they started service learning in the special school. The same instrument was given to the same group of children at the end of the service learning project.

I understand that the results illustrated in the questionnaire could not really

inform us whether students' behaviour had changed. The purpose of giving questionnaires to the experimental group was to quantify the observations and interviews. Therefore, the questionnaire survey served as the supporting data to support the other evidence collected in the action research. This enabled me to assess children's attitude and moral values cited in interviews and observations.

5.8 SUMMARY

This chapter has outlined the need for change in the teaching of citizenship education in Hong Kong primary schools and has explained why action learning is a potential pedagogy for education for citizenship. However, for many reasons, the feasibility of action learning in a primary school is in doubt. To explore the feasibility of action learning, I decided to adopt action research.

The characteristics of action research are, first, it aims to realize educational values; second, the researcher takes an active participatory role in the process of research; third, the objective of action research is for improvement and changes, and fourthly, it is a reflective practice. Through reflection, practice can be improved. These characteristics are consistent with the aim of my study which is to improve teaching strategies for citizenship education in Hong Kong primary schools. Therefore, an action research method is adopted in this study. The research basically

used the action research models proposed by Kurt Lewin (1946), Stephen Kemmis (1988) and John Elliott (1991).

The steps of action research started from recognition of the problems of teaching in citizenship education in Hong Kong and obstacles to action learning. The next step was the demonstration lessons conducting in a primary school. The aim of demonstration lessons was to illustrate to teachers the feasibility of action learning. From this actual experience of classroom teaching, I could reflect on the possibility of action learning and design the subsequent steps of the study. After the demonstration lessons, a series of formal and informal interviews with teachers and students were arranged.

The feedback from teachers and students was supportive and will be discussed in the next chapter. The results of the demonstration teaching affected the planning of subsequent stages with study. The subsequent stages included classroom teaching, and a service learning project in a special school. Observations, formal and informal interviews with different groups of people, keeping diaries and portfolios, and questionnaire were designed to collect data for evaluation of the action learning project.

CHAPTER SIX

THE FIRST CYCLE: DEMONSTRATION TEACHING

6.1 INTRODUCTION

This action research using an action learning pedagogy was a two-year study, comprised three action-reflection cycles. Demonstration teaching was the first cycle of action research, and aimed to explore the feasibility and the effectiveness of action learning in citizenship education in a primary school. The definition of feasibility here meant the following: whether the curriculum design was consistent with the current teaching and learning environment. Effectiveness was defined in terms of learning outcomes in knowledge, skills and values. In assessing knowledge, I focussed on how the experimental group acquired knowledge related to environmental protection, and what they had learnt from the demonstration teaching. In assessing skills, I expected the experimental group to demonstrate their abilities in inquiry, decision-making, collaboration, and problem-solving. These are the generic skills that all schools should aim to develop as stipulated in the *Learning to Learn* (CDC, 2001) document. In assessing values, I expected an enhancement of students' social and individual responsibilities through the demonstration teaching. Given that both England and Hong Kong are promoting active citizenship in citizenship education, therefore, I refer to the QCA (1998) document '*Education for citizenship and the*

teaching of democracy in schools' section 2.11, which explains the meanings of effective education for citizenship as follows:

“Firstly, children learning from the very beginning self-confidence and socially and morally responsible behaviour both in and beyond the classroom, both towards those in authority and towards each other... Secondly, learning about and becoming helpfully involved in the life and concerns of their communities, including learning through community involvement and service to the community... Thirdly, pupils learning about and how to make themselves effective in public life through knowledge, skills and values...”

(QCA, 1998, pp.11-13).

I also referred to CDC (2001) *Learning to Learn – The Way Forward in Curriculum Development* regarding the strategies to promote effective moral and civic education when designing the curriculum for the demonstration teaching. It says:

- Students should take an active role in participating in learning opportunities, both inside and outside the classroom to cultivate their values’
- They need to constantly reflect upon their own values and be committed to them. (CDC, 2001, p.84)

Thus, based on the above meanings of effective citizenship education, the first cycle of the research project provided many opportunities for students to learn through the community. It was expected that the research findings in this part of study would greatly influence the later parts of research on action learning pedagogy.

This demonstration teaching was conducted in an average primary school located in a housing estate in a new town for three months. There were 37 students⁶ in the experimental group, aged from 10 to 11 years old. They were mainly from low-middle class families. I visited the experimental school on every Wednesday for four months. No lesson was conducted during school holidays and examination period. Four General Studies teachers were assigned by the school principal to act as observers. One of them was invited to be the experimental teacher adopting action learning strategy in citizenship education teaching in the second cycle of the action research.

As discussed in Chapter five, one of the special features of action research is that the teacher is also the researcher. In this action research cycle, I played the role of teacher and researcher. Another feature of action research and action learning is reflection. The purpose of constructing a portfolio was to enhance students' reflective ability. Their portfolios thus became an important source of data for my own reflection. Besides portfolios, observations and interviews with the observers and students were also useful data in this study. Six months after the completion of study in the experimental school, I conducted a post-project interview with six students, representing the six groups. These group representatives were selected by

⁶ There were 37 students on roll in the experimental group but two students were absent quite frequently so sometimes only 35 students attended the lessons.

their group members.

This chapter aims to address four research questions stipulated in Chapter five section 5.2.4. These four questions were:

1. How far is an action learning approach effective and feasible in the implementation of citizenship education in primary schools?
2. Is an action-learning approach effective in citizenship education? What are children's reactions to an action-learning approach?
3. What changes have action learning brought about in citizenship education? Are there any difficulties encountered in the implementation of an action learning approach? What are they and are there any resolutions to these problems?
4. What benefits does an action learning approach bring to citizenship education? What are the implications of the results of this study for the implementation of citizenship education in Hong Kong?

The results of these questions are discussed in detail in the following paragraphs.

6.2 RESULTS OF STUDY

6.2.1 *Feasibility of an action learning approach in Hong Kong*

As described in Chapter Four, citizenship education in Hong Kong is one of the four major tasks for schools. It involves adopting a cross-curricular approach in

implementation. That means all subjects have the responsibility to include citizenship education in the curriculum. Amongst all the primary subjects, General Studies is regarded as the most suitable subject to implement citizenship education in primary schools. In this regard, I selected ‘Environmental Protection’, a topic in General Studies, as my teaching theme. Details of the experimental teaching were outlined in Chapter Five and included the following:

Programmes	No. of lessons
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Social survey – this was a small scale survey conducted in a housing estate where the experimental school was located; aimed to find out the cleanliness and hygiene condition in that area. 	3
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Water sample test – an outdoor activity. Students went to three different parts of the river nearby the school to collect water samples and to find out the problems of water pollution and make recommendations. 	4
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • School service project – students served as the mediator for the students in school to exchange their outgrown, used, but still usable school uniforms. 	2
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Recycle-paper workshop – students learned how to recycle papers. 	1

The social survey and water sample tests were outdoor activities aiming to enable students to identify the problems in our environment and recommend solutions. As mentioned above, students are encouraged to learn about citizenship inside and outside classroom (CDC, 2001, p.84). Moreover, de Winter (1997) claims that citizenship education is indoctrination if it only relies on moral theories without going out to see the actual world. In this sense, learning beyond the classroom is important in citizenship education. The duration of each lesson was 90 minutes, equivalent to

two General Studies lessons, as commonly practised in primary schools. The selected topic and teaching time for each demonstration lesson were arranged for the purpose of demonstrating its feasibility. It would have been desirable to have longer time for each demonstration lesson involving outdoor activities. Nevertheless, that would have been challenged by teachers as unrealistic. As a result, each demonstration lesson was just as long as the normal General Studies lesson⁷.

The action learning approach was shown to be feasible according to the views of teacher-observers. Four interviews with the four teacher-observers were conducted altogether during the period of experimental teaching. The background of the four teacher-observers is attached in appendix 6.1. Their background greatly influenced their perception of the feasibility and effectiveness of action learning pedagogy in citizenship education. Nevertheless, the teacher-observers changed their perception of the feasibility from negative at the beginning to supportive in the end (table 6.1). The table shows that teacher A had changed from a perception of low feasibility to a more positive attitude after attending all the demonstration lessons. Teacher B also had a negative view in the feasibility of action learning in the first meeting but had changed to very supportive by the last. The change of teacher C from low level of feasibility to high level feasibility was rather slow in comparison with teacher B.

⁷ The Education Manpower Bureau recommends the primary schools to arrange five lessons for General Studies per week. Among these five lessons, at least one double General Studies lessons on timetable in order to allow schools to arrange activities beyond classroom.

Nevertheless, she recognized the value of action learning in citizenship education and became supportive. Teacher D was the most negative teacher. She only attended two out of four interviews. Her attitude was consistently negative.

Table 6.1 Level of feasibility of action learning as perceived by teachers

Interview Level Teacher	1 st			2 nd			3 rd			4 th		
	High	Mid	Low	High	Mid	Low	High	Mid	Low	High	Mid	Low
A			√		√		ABSENT				√	
B			√		√		√			√		
C			√		√			√		√		
D	ABSENT					√	ABSENT				√	

At the first interview, teacher D was absent; the other three revealed that they had reservations about the feasibility of action learning approach after they had attended the briefing given to the experimental group. They particularly did not support my grouping method. In the first meeting with students, I allowed the experimental group to group themselves freely in groups of six. That means the experimental group had a free choice to choose their own members. The rationale was to test their cooperation and collaboration abilities. As this was an extraordinary practice, as described by teacher A, she worried that it would lead to chaos during group work. Nevertheless, teacher B, who was the class teacher of the experimental group, was confident that this would not happen. Furthermore, teachers were concerned about whether the action learning approach would be an excessively time-consuming strategy. The teacher-observers, though supporting the rationale of

action learning, were doubtful about the possibility of implementing this pedagogy. They complained that they had too many things to teach but too little time to cover them. In this sense, teachers doubted whether I could cover what I wished to teach in the limited time. Furthermore, none of the teacher-observers supported the new assessment method – the portfolio. They worried that the portfolio would require too much work and increase students' load. Their worry was sensible because primary five and primary six were critical years for the experimental group. The secondary school placement system in Hong Kong ensures that students' school assessment results in primary five and primary six will greatly affect their future secondary placement. If students could not demonstrate satisfactory achievement in school, they might be placed in a low band school⁸.

The teacher-observers changed their perception of the feasibility of action learning after their participation in the subsequent activities, for example, the social survey in the school community; the water sample test; the service learning project in schools; and the recycling paper workshop. In these activities, they heard positive feedback from students and saw favourable outcomes of learning. For example, teacher-observer A commended the students for their deeper understanding about the cleanliness of the community in the social survey activity. However, teacher D

⁸ In Hong Kong, secondary schools are categorized into three main bands, viz, band 1, 2 and 3. Band 1 schools are for the higher achievers in primary education, and band 3 schools are usually for the lower achievers.

queried the feasibility because in reality, they could not have four teachers working together for one class. This query started a hot debate amongst the teacher-observers and in the end they concluded that the problem could be resolved. However, teachers were still concerned about the timing of each lesson, particularly when they were involved in the water sample test. As the experimental group had to collect water samples from a polluted river nearby the school, students went to upper, middle and lower parts of the river in three different lessons. According to their current timetable, not all General Studies lessons were as long as 90 minutes, sometimes they only had 35 minutes. As a result, it would be difficult to finish this water sample test within the syllabus. Nevertheless, a majority of the teacher-observers regarded action learning pedagogy as feasible but they would modify this strategy to fit into their teaching environment; for example, they would arrange the three collections of water samples in different parts of the river in one afternoon; that would mean after normal school hours, in order to save traveling time and manpower. In other words, they felt that the activities planned in the demonstration teaching were feasible, though there were some technical and administrative problems to be resolved.

In general, all the four teacher-observers unanimously agreed that the action learning approach was feasible in teaching and learning, but two teachers only partially supported it because of the heavy workload and limited teaching time.

However, they all recognized that the problems of timing and resources in the demonstration teaching were technical problems and could basically be resolved. A summary of the results of the four interviews with teacher-observers is attached in appendix 6.2.

6.2.2 *The effectiveness of an action learning approach in citizenship education*

As mentioned in the ‘Introduction’ part of this chapter, I intended to study the effectiveness of an action learning approach from the perspectives of knowledge, skills and values. The reason for analyzing effectiveness from these perspectives was these three areas were in the curriculum framework for all subjects in Hong Kong.

Regarding reliability as pointed out by Mills (2000), it is the ‘consistency that our data measures what we are attempting to measure over time (p.83).’ Nitko (2001) explains that there are three conditions for reliability assessment: (1) students complete the same task(s) on two different occasions; (2) two or more teachers mark their performance on the same task(s); or (3) students complete different but equivalent tasks on the same or different occasions (p.63). The first two conditions were not fulfilled in the first cycle of this research study because the teacher-observers were not prepared to mark any work done by students. The only job they agreed to do was to assess students’ performance according to the observation checklist

(Appendix 6.3).

As a check on reliability, I had to consider the third condition proposed by Nitko (2001). Thus, the sources of data I collected on a similar task were several, for example, students' portfolio, the social survey report, feedback from teacher-observers and the observation checklist (Appendix 6.3).

6.2.2.1 From the aspect of knowledge

The objectives of demonstration teaching were to reinforce the four concepts of environmental protection, namely reduce, reuse, recycle and reproduce. Action learning was proved to be effective in helping students construct knowledge. This was demonstrated by a survey of cleanliness and hygiene in the school community. Students were divided into six small groups, five groups composed of 6 members, and one group of seven. Two groups of students conducted their survey in supermarkets in the community to collect data on whether the shoppers had brought their own shopping bags. Two groups of students investigated in the bus terminus area, whether the pedestrians would drop rubbish in the garbage bins. The other groups studied the hygiene and cleanliness of the community in the wet market where food was sold.

In total, thirty-seven students were involved in this activity. Eighteen students, about 48%, mentioned in their portfolios and their social survey reports that they had

never realized that some areas in the school's community were piled up with rubbish and garbage. Six students (one group) had taken the initiative to search which government department was responsible for city cleanliness. Sixteen students had concluded in their survey reports that 95% of shoppers did not bring their own shopping bags to supermarket and 60% of the shoppers asked for more shopping bags. In their conclusions, they remarked that propaganda to reduce the use of plastic bags and 'Bring your Own Bag' (BYOB) should be promoted. Two groups had found the location of rubbish bins was the major cause of litter in the streets. This knowledge was first hand and could not be found in textbooks. Students put the findings from their survey in their social survey reports. The assessments of level of performance were based on the average performance in the social survey activity, for example, the points they made in their social survey reports, their reflections in the portfolios and the assessment of the teacher-observers. Those who gave five points with detailed explanations in the social survey report, and also in the portfolios were grouped under 'high' level of performance. Those who gave two to four points with brief explanations, were graded 'middle', and those who gave one point or none, produced a sloppy report without sensible reasons and no effort, were graded 'low'. Repeated points in the social survey report would not be counted. The results from the portfolios and social survey reports were more or less the same in the views of

knowledge acquired. This was predictable because the two tasks were done by the same person. Students just copied what they put in their social survey reports in their portfolios. Below is the summary table (Table 6.2) of learning outcomes of the experimental group in the social survey activity.

Table 6.2 Summary of learning outcomes of social survey

Learning Outcomes	No. of students(%) n=37		
	High	Middle	low
Identifying problems of local community <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Abuse of shopping bags Mis-location of rubbish bins Cleanliness of wet market 	18(48%) 12(32%) 6(16%)	13(36%) 1 (4%) 6(16%) 6(16%)	6(16%) 6%(16%)
Giving resolutions to the problems <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Relocation of rubbish bins Large scale propaganda on BYOB education 	6(16%) 6 (16%)	25(68%) 12(32%)	6(16%) 6(16%)

Remarks: High = 5 or more points in the social survey report and portfolio
Medium = 2 to four points in the social survey report and portfolio
Low = 1 point and sloppy performance in social survey report and portfolio

Regarding the assessment by teachers, the teacher-observers were more lenient because the results showed in the checklist were a bit different from the performance shown in the social survey reports and portfolios. No students were assessed low in inquiry. Teacher-observers felt that students showed great interest in the social survey activity. When I discussed this point with the teacher-observers, they explained that six students, though they did not produce a satisfactory social survey report, nevertheless had learned something. This scenario was quite different from their performance in the classroom when they would learn nothing in lessons.

Teacher-observers’ observations on students’ performance in inquiry is summarized in table 6.3.

Table 6.3 Summary of teacher-observers’ assessment on inquiry

Items	Level of performance		
	No. of students (n=37) (%)		
	High	Middle	Low
Shows interest to inquire	24 (65%)	13 (36%)	0 (0%)
Able to ask questions	12 (32%)	25 (68%)	0 (0%)
Able to collect information through various resources	12 (32%)	19 (51%)	0 (0%)

Students particularly liked the activity of collecting water samples from the polluted river. In this activity, students learned the causes of pollution by studying the environment of the river area. Students found that the upper river, which was far away from inhabitants, was cleaner than the middle and lower parts of the river. A student wrote in his portfolio that *‘This activity was very interesting. I have never enjoyed learning as much as this. The water samples of the three sites showed that the upper stream was the cleanest. Why? There was a hilly area and nobody lived there. Therefore, man is the devil who polluted the river!’* The statements written by students showed that they could conclude that human factor was one of the causes of water pollution. Almost the whole class reflected in their portfolios that they had found the causes of pollution and suggested some solutions to the problem. Their recommendations, such as improving sewerage treatment, increasing penalties for offenders, reinforced the concept of keeping the city clean. Table 6.4 shows the summary of the learning outcomes of water sample test.

Table 6.4 Summary of learning outcomes of water sample test

Learning Outcomes \ Level of Performance	No, of Students (%) n=37		
	High	Middle	Low
Identifying causes of pollutions	35(94.5%)	2(5.5%)	0%
Making recommendations	10(27%)	25(67.5%)	2(5.5%)
• impose heavy penalty on the offenders	2(5.5%)	10(27%)	
• improve sewerage	6(16%)	6(16%)	
• create new rules regarding sewage system for the factories nearby	2(5.5%)		
• prohibit littering		2(5.5%)	2(5.5%)
• prohibit fishing			
• education		5(13%)	
• employ more people to clean the environment		2(5.5%)	

The effectiveness of action learning was confirmed by the group representatives in the post-project interview. At the meeting, four out of six representatives indicated that the water sample test was the most impressive activity in the two-year study. The other two student representatives, though they did not rank water sample test in the first place, gave high commendation to this activity as well. All of the representatives remarked that they began to feel concern for the environment after participating in this project. When asked about their perceptions of good citizens, all of them said that protecting the environment and keeping the city clean were their obligations and responsibilities. One student representative specially advocated that a good citizen should not pollute the river.

Students' interest in learning about environmental protection was further

displayed in the workshop on recycling paper. Students saved unwanted old newspapers from the beginning of the demonstration teaching. They changed these unwanted papers into “new” paper. The major aim of this activity was to reinforce the concept of recycling. Their laughter and smiling faces told how much they enjoyed their lessons. 100% of them indicated in their portfolios that they had learned how to make paper from recycled paper. In their portfolios, students wrote that they had had misconceptions on the production of recycling papers. Before the workshop, they had heard about recycled paper but had never realized used paper at home and in school could be recycled. Some described this workshop as fun and meaningful in their portfolios. They remarked that they would not waste the used papers and would put them in the recycle paper collection bin.

The effectiveness of action learning in enhancing knowledge was further evident from the activity of exchanging used school uniforms. In this activity, students had new experience in organizing a service project. As explained in Chapter Five, this service activity was previously organized by the Parents Association. On my suggestion to the school, the experimental group had to conduct this activity during the demonstration teaching. The objective was to reinforce their concepts of ‘reduce’ and ‘reuse’ through the organization of this service campaign. In addition, the activity aimed to provide an opportunity for students to serve others, and to learn

how to organize a project. These experiences were valuable and could not be learned from textbooks.

Amongst all the activities learned in the demonstration teaching, students felt that this activity was the most difficult. Unlike other activities, students were guided by the teacher in their learning. In the preparation for this service project, I had given them a general guide and had assigned duties for each group, for example, group 4 was responsible for publicity, group 1 was responsible for collection and distribution, group 2's duty was to record and catalogue the incoming and outgoing uniforms, etc. Students were reminded that this service was not a charity service; instead, this was an environmental protection project. They had to advertise the concepts of 'reduce' and 'reuse' to the whole school. Therefore, the emphasis on full utilization of resources should be conveyed to other students. All the students supported this activity and participated eagerly. As students had never had this experience before, they were quite puzzled about planning. However, they were serious. Everyone made an effort in preparation. As a result, in discussion of what and how to do the job, debates and arguments occurred.

The feedback from their portfolios demonstrated that some groups had learned how to do cataloguing, how to design the record forms and make records, how to advertise the activity to the whole school, including the memo to parents, posters in

school, etc. The jobs of collecting and delivering the uniforms were novel experiences for them. Nevertheless, students gained invaluable experience through the exchange of used school uniforms project. Some students demonstrated their rigorous planning of work in their portfolios. They described in their portfolios how this new learning experience provoked their thinking. They had to consider many minor details, for example how to collect the school uniforms from the donors, how to make relevant records, how to collaborate and coordinate with other groups for the rest of the work, and to liaise with the chair of the Parents Association, etc. Students seemed to enjoy the project very much. All this was valuable experience for the students. A brief summary of students’ performance from the perspective of knowledge is shown in table 6.5 below:

Table 6.5 Learning outcomes of knowledge in school service project N=37

Learning outcomes	No. of students
Know the real meaning of reduce and reuse	28
Know how to write memo to schoolmates and letter to parents	2
Know how to advertise the event	12
Know how to make records	6
Know the steps of collecting and distributing the used uniforms	7
Know how to coordinate with other groups	12

In sum, the outcomes were encouraging and positive. The experimental group showed that they had gained new learning and their concepts of the four Rs had been reinforced. About 28 (75.6%) students indicated in their portfolios that they had

widened their knowledge of environmental protection. Teacher-observers had the same opinion that this action learning facilitate students' learning.. Of the four Rs, students showed that they had clearer concepts of reuse, reduce and recycle through the action learning activities. However, their concept of reproduce remained unchanged. Furthermore, they stated in their portfolios that they would pay more attention to environmental protection in their daily living.

6.2.2.2 skills

The experimental group had learned and applied various skills through demonstration teaching such as inquiry skills, observation skills, problem-solving skills, decision-making skills, collaborative skills, etc. from various action learning activities. The performance of students varied from high to low. Data from the observation checklist assessed by the four teacher-observers and my own observation were consistent except inquiry skills. From my observation, two groups showed consistently high level performance, and two groups were consistently low in inquiry. But the data from the observation checklists showed that no group was low in inquiry skills. Overall data showed that group A was the most outstanding in skills performance amongst the six groups. Group C also displayed a high level of performance in inquiry and problem-solving and decision-making skills but not so high in collaborative and observation skills. Group D was the weakest in

performance on the four skills. Data also illustrated that members of the experimental group had problems in working with their group members. Three groups (50%) of the experimental group scored low in collaborative skills. This result was consistent with the scores given by teacher-observers shown in the observation checklists (Table 6.6).

Table 6.6 Results of observation checklist assessed by teacher-observers

	No. of students (n=37) (%)		
	high	middle	Low
1. Inquiry			
➤ Shows interest to inquire	24 (65%)	13 (35%)	0 (0%)
➤ Able to ask questions	12 (32%)	25 (68%)	0 (0%)
➤ Able to collect information through various sources	12 (32%)	19 (51%)	6 (16%)
2. Problem-solving and decision-making			
➤ Indicates a basic understanding of problems	18 (49%)	13 (35%)	6 (16%)
➤ Able to select an appropriate strategy	12 (32%)	19 (51%)	6 (16%)
➤ Able to judge appropriate decision	12 (32%)	19 (51%)	6 (16%)
3. Collaborative			
➤ Works actively towards the achievement of group goals	6 (16%)	25 (68%)	6 (16%)
➤ Attends the group activities	6 (16%)	13 (35%)	18 (49%)
➤ Interacts appropriately with group members	6 (16%)	13 (35%)	18 (49%)
➤ Follows rules and regulations	6 (16%)	13 (35%)	18 (49%)
4. Observation			
➤ Able to collect information through observation	6 (16%)	19 (51%)	12 (32%)

Under collaboration, it should be noted that teacher-observers contended that only group D (six students) did not work actively towards the achievement of group goals and the rest of the groups performed satisfactorily. One group had outstanding performance, that was group A. However, for the rest of the three descriptors related to collaboration, namely, attendance, interaction and following rules,

teacher-observers contended that three groups performed low. They gave the reason for this discrepancy that the other two groups had shown an effort to work collaboratively together, unlike Group D which was not very committed and argued with each other all through the demonstration teaching. Data on collaborative skills in the checklist, observed that three groups scored at a ‘low’ level.

The assessment of the inquiry, problem-solving and decision-making, collaborative and observation skills were not based on one activity; instead, this was the average performance on all activities. The judgment of level of performance was based on the observation checklists assessed by the four teacher-observers (table 6.6) and my own observation, and is shown in table 6.7.

Table 6.7 The four skills performance of the experimental group

<div> <div>Level</div> <div>Group</div> </div>	Inquiry			Problem-solving & decision-making			Collaborative			observation		
	H	M	L	H	M	L	H	M	L	H	M	L
A	√			√			√			√		
B		√			√				√		√	
C	√			√				√			√	
D			√			√			√			√
E		√			√				√		√	
F			√		√			√				√

For inquiry skills, students showed that they had not known how to conduct a social survey at first. Therefore, I changed the programmes; two activities were removed, viz. the air test was moved to primary six, and the ‘poor and rich banquet’

was cancelled, in order to spare time for the teaching of inquiry skills. After a special training on this topic, students proposed their own plans for a cleanliness survey in the school community, and conducted the survey under the supervision of me and the four teacher-observers. Except groups D and F, all groups showed impressive performance. Group D was the most problematic group. The group leader frequently complained that his group members were not cooperative, both in his portfolio and at the interview. Their survey report was sloppy and disorganized, and demonstrated that they were not serious in their work. Their performance in inquiring into factors causing water pollution was also not satisfactory. Members of Group F in contrast were very disciplined and quiet. However, as the academic results of this group were a bit behind the others, students were quite shy and unconfident in their work. Their survey report was disorganized, though effort was seen. At the interview with this group of students, I found that they produced unrealistic data and sometimes invented it. Some data they presented were only estimates. Groups A and C could ask 'what', 'where', 'when', 'how', and 'why' when interviewing the residents because they planned the interview beforehand. They also demonstrated the skill of synthesizing data in their survey reports. Their performance in other activities such as water sample test, school service project, etc. was also outstanding. In their academic results, the majority of members of these

two groups of students were only of middling ability in class but they showed enthusiasm and initiative in learning. When I taught them the skills of conducting a social survey, they jotted down all the points in their portfolios. Their high level of skills performance can be explained by their good collaboration and the leadership of some of the group members. It should be noted that I allowed the students to group themselves freely. The teacher-observers, particularly Teacher A revealed in the interview that they did not support this way of grouping. All the teacher-observers agreed that students' inquiry skills had developed.

Students demonstrated their acquisition of problem-solving and decision-making skills on many occasions such as in the social survey. Group A changed the location of interviewing the pedestrians when the prior choice of location was undesirable. Their problem-solving skill was enhanced when they were asked to identify the problems of community cleanliness and water pollution and to make suggestions for possible solutions. Students proposed reasonable and sensible solutions to the problems they had identified. Thus, their problem-solving and decision-making skills were enhanced and developed. For example, in their portfolios, they suggested that the government should improve the sewerage when they found that the nearby factories were the source of water pollution. Opportunities for the development of decision-making skill were provided to students, particularly through the 'social

survey' and 'school service project'. In the social survey activity, students had to select which data were useful to their study and which were not. In this process of selection of data, students' decision-making skill was enhanced. Their decision-making skills were developed in many other activities, such as in the school service project; students had to decide where they should put up their posters, how to advertise this service project in school, whether or not they should visit every class to promote the project, how many uniforms each recipient could obtain, etc. They had to make these decisions as part of the activity.

As all the activities were designed on small group basis, students had many opportunities to work together. Their performance in group activities illustrated that they had problems in working collaboratively with other members. Teacher-observers had also noticed the problem of collaboration during their observations. For example, in the interviews, teacher-observers described how *'some students refused to cooperate with others in the social survey activity.'* Another teacher told me that one of her students complained about the uncooperative attitude of his group members. She explained: "In their group discussion, I could hear these sentences very often, 'why should I listen to you?' 'Why can't you use my suggestion?'" Students themselves were aware of this problem; many of them stated in their portfolio that they found that cooperation and collaboration were the two keys

to success in the school service project.

Regarding observation skills, teacher-observers confirmed that students' observation skills were developed. For example, one teacher said that 'students used observation method in data collection...' in the social survey. In the water sample testing activity, students were asked to study the surrounding environment of the river and discover the causes of water pollution. Students observed the surroundings and inferred that crowded housing and factory buildings around the river were the major factors in water pollution.

Evidence from portfolios, interviews and observations illustrated that the action learning pedagogy was effective in skills development and enhancement.

6.2.2.3 Values

Opportunities were provided to the experimental group for the development of values.

I identified the values students learned from their portfolios. The following table (Table 6.8) displays the important values learned in the demonstration teaching.

Table 6.8 A summary of values indicated in portfolios

Programmes	Values learned	No. of students (n=37)
Social Survey	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • reduce and minimize waste • civic and social responsibility • care and concern for the society • cooperative 	<p>18 (49%)</p> <p>16 (43%)</p> <p>6 (16%)</p> <p>10 (27%)</p>
Water sample test	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • reduce and minimize waste • civic and social responsibility • cooperative 	<p>30 (81%)</p> <p>20 (54%)</p> <p>8 (22%)</p>
School service project	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • reuse old uniforms and be thrifty • importance of cooperation and consequences of lack of cooperation • responsibility • respect for others 	<p>28 (76%)</p> <p>12 (32%)</p> <p>20 (54%)</p> <p>20 (54%)</p> <p>6 (16%)</p>
Recycle paper workshop	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • reuse and recycle • protect the environment 	<p>36 (97%)</p> <p>6 (16%)</p>

The strength of action learning is reflected from the above table. Data illustrated that students' concepts of reduce, reuse and recycle were reinforced through the activities learned. Data also illustrated that civic and social responsibility was a major value developed in the demonstration teaching and showed that the tendency increased in the subsequent activities. For example, in the social survey activity, 16 students mentioned that good citizens were obliged to keep the city clean and protect the environment. Similar opinions were indicated in their portfolios. In the social survey reports, several students expressed the view that those who littered were irresponsible and had no civic responsibility. The number of those who contended that it was civic responsibility to protect the environment increased to 20 after their visits to the river. One student wrote in his portfolio after the trip to the middle part

of the river that *“People should not throw rubbish into the river, that makes the river stink.”* In the school service project, when some of the students were uncooperative and irresponsible, the school principal imposed a punishment and a strong reaction was seen in their portfolios. Twenty students indicated in their portfolios that the irresponsible group shamed the whole class and should develop their sense of responsibility.

While they were preparing a project, I heard a lot of arguments, particularly in the boys groups. I could often hear the following conversations during discussion:

“My work is better than yours. Why should I listen to you?”

“Why we have to take your ideas? I don’t think they are good.”

“Your design doesn’t work at all. Look at mine!”

“Your plan is not good. I won’t follow.”

Their conversations illustrated that they did not show respect for members’ opinions.

The following example was from a girl who was classified as ‘gifted’:

“You planning is not detailed enough. There are so many loopholes in the plan. It is rubbish! Look, the space for putting up the posters is not good. People cannot see them!”

One girl expressed her furious feeling in her portfolios by drawing. She complained that her group members were not cooperative. She was not the only one

who had this feeling. Many students of the experimental group were ‘gifted’⁹ children. Possibly because of their intelligence, they thought that their plans were always better than others. They could work independently. As a result, quarrels and arguments often occurred. Children did not show respect for others and were not willing to accept others’ opinions. I noted this problem in the early stage of the demonstration teaching. I discussed the problem with the four teacher-observers and asked how they handled it. Teacher A answered firmly that this problem would not happen in her teaching because she would not allow students to quarrel in her lessons. If this really occurred, she would punish them. Teachers C and D shared A’s opinion. Teacher B, the class teacher of the experimental group said that she would play the role of a peacemaker. Their feedback told me that the free grouping policy would bring about disciplinary problems. As explained earlier, I allowed students to group themselves freely because I believed this was a good opportunity to develop their collaborative skills. However, the free grouping policy allowed students to express their feeling and opinions freely so arguments and quarrels occurred. If we looked at the way they got along with others from another angle, their debates, arguments and quarrels illustrated that students were keen to learn and were committed to the process of learning. In fact, students learned how to work with others in the process of group

⁹ Whether or not the students were gifted were based on the results of the assessment conducted by the Special Education Branch of the Education and Manpower Bureau.

work, though arguments existed. Therefore, I decided not to change the way of grouping. Instead, I discussed with each group how they should get along with others and decided that I would not stop them unless the situation deteriorated.

Twenty students indicated in their portfolio that some members were uncooperative. Other students had the same opinion when I interviewed them. One group leader told me that he had difficulties in handling his members because they did not show up in the preparation meeting, and that caused a very unsatisfactory performance in school assembly. The whole group was punished by the school principal later on. Students also expressed their discontent with the Parents Association because the chairperson of the association criticized their work. For this reason, 6 students reflected in their portfolios that people should respect others, including the adults. *‘The most significant improvement I observed was collaboration. Since students had to do a lot of work, for example, collection, recording, categorization, distribution, all these processes required close cooperation and coordination. They had difficulties in the beginning, but I could see some of them had remarkable improvement,’* a teacher-observer said in an interview. In this sense, though some students did not show good collaboration, others showed improvement.

In sum, the above data illustrated the effectiveness of action learning with

respect to knowledge, skills and values. There was evidence that action learning helped students generalize their concepts and ideas, and provided opportunities to acquire various skills and values development. The action learning strategy also illustrated that the experimental group had problem in working collaboratively with others. Their values of care and concern for the society and respect for others still had room for development.

6.2.3 Changes that action learning strategy brought about in citizenship education

6.2.3.1 The change of teacher's role from instructor to facilitator

In the interviews with students, many of them indicated that one of the reasons they enjoyed the lessons was the 'free' and 'democratic' atmosphere. They felt that they had a lot of freedom to learn in ways they preferred and expected. They also had opportunities to speak up. It was unlike normal teaching, when they were not allowed to talk unless approval was granted by teachers, and they had to follow the teacher's plan or instruction in all activities. In contrast, in the demonstration teaching, they had autonomy to plan their survey, and to discuss the resolutions to the problems. Their feedback illustrated the benefit and importance of a facilitator in learning. One teacher-observer had compared the facilitator role with the traditional teaching role. She said, 'The significant difference between the facilitator and instructor role is that

students have to find the answers themselves under the teacher's guidance. Students showed they enjoyed this strategy very much. However, a facilitator has to do a lot of preparation work.'

Not all the four teacher-observers wanted to change their teaching approach into a facilitating role. Two teachers showed their support, one was half-supportive, the other one rejected the change strongly. The reasons mainly concerned time and effort. The one who strongly objected to the role of facilitator described this role as time-consuming and ineffective in teaching and learning. She said, *'Though I found that students enjoyed the lessons very much, without resources and support from school, in the mean time, it is rather difficult to adopt 'true' action learning.'*

Action learning is process learning, students learn through active participation and experiences until they can generalize the knowledge themselves and teacher is a crucial factor in successful action learning.

6.2.3.2 Change of learning context: from classroom learning to field-based study

Action learning is child-centred and participatory. According to Sugrue (1997), one of the principles of child-learning and a participatory approach is environment-based learning. Sugrue encouraged teachers to conduct their teaching in a real environment. As such, the demonstration teaching employed as much environment-based learning as possible, such as the social survey and water sample

test. The experimental group had to conduct a social survey in the housing estate where their school was located. Through this activity, students gained a deeper and clearer understanding of the school environment. Students concluded in their surveys that people were not aware of the importance of environmental protection.

Students had opportunities to visit the three different parts of the river near their school. Students were already very familiar with the river. They complained that the river stank, particularly in spring but had never investigated the causes before this project. In this activity, students found out that inhabitants and factories built near the river were the sources of pollution. It was only from study in a real context that students were impressed by the situation. Thus they were motivated to identify what problems occurred and possible resolutions to these problems.

6.2.3.3 Change of role of students: from learners to organizers

Students were deeply impressed by the school service project, i.e. exchange of used but serviceable school uniforms. Though they had some unpleasant experiences, such as being punished by the school principal because of some members' irresponsible behaviour and a complaint from the chair of the Parents Association about their carelessness; they were happy with the experience gained from this activity. As described by some students in their portfolios, they were happy because they felt honour in conducting this 'large' scale project. In the process of

organization, students grasped new learning such as cataloguing and keeping records, etc. They learned many skills such as collaboration, organization, communication, etc. in the project.

6.2.3.4 Change of assessment method

As noted earlier, a significant feature of action learning and action research is reflection. In order to develop students' reflective ability, I asked each of them to keep a portfolio. Portfolio assessment is a new strategy in primary and secondary education of Hong Kong. From the construction of their portfolios, students understood their development and growth in learning. I did not hear any complaints about constructing portfolios from students but it did not receive support from the teacher-observers. All of them articulated at the interviews that they had reservations about portfolio assessment because it would be a burden to students and would affect their results in the secondary school placement. Teachers said that it would be possible to use portfolio assessment if the marks were not counted in examinations. Teachers' opinions about portfolio assessment will certainly influence the development of action learning and action research.

6.2.3.5 Conceptual change

The action learning strategy helped students to clarify the concepts learned. Some students remarked in their portfolios that they did not realize making recycled paper

was so easy and interesting. In their minds, they thought that recycled paper production would only occur in big factories. In the workshop, they had opportunity to experience how used papers could be recycled. This fascinating experience stimulated students' awareness of paper recycling. This illustrates that action learning not only corrects students' misconceptions, it also stimulates students to further investigation and exploration. Further evidence that action learning enabled students to change their concepts was the water sample test. Originally, all students had a concept that the river nearby the experimental school was dirty and seriously polluted. By visiting different sites of the river, students realized that the upper part of the river was clean and clear. After visiting all the three sites of river, students recognized that human beings should bear the responsibility for water pollution. Furthermore, after attending three months demonstration teaching, students' concepts of environmental protection changed. They realized that they had responsibilities to protect the environment. It is important to note that this change was not temporary; students confirmed it in the post-project interview which was conducted two years after the demonstration teaching. Students' reflections illustrated that action learning could change and correct students' misconceptions.

Conceptual changed not only occurred in students, it also appeared in teachers' concepts. After the first briefing lesson I gave to the experimental group, all four

teacher-observers expressed great reservation about the feasibility of action learning in a primary school. They contended that this strategy was time consuming and not practical. Nevertheless, after attending all the demonstration lessons, three teachers had changed their concepts of action learning, and their attitude towards its feasibility. One teacher remained resistant and, reluctant to cooperate but the other three were supportive to the feasibility of action learning. In sum, action learning could bring changes, both to teachers and students.

6.2.4 Benefits of action learning approach

The demonstration teaching demonstrated the benefits that action learning can bring to students in learning knowledge, skills and values. The post-project interview with group representatives also suggests that action learning influences the learners' perceptions. The group representatives of the experimental group, after two years, still commended activities such as social inquiry, water sample test and recycling paper workshop as their preferred way of learning. They unanimously agreed that action learning helped them to think deeply and to experience the importance of environmental protection. Apart from this advantage, the following paragraphs discuss the benefits of action learning for students through demonstration teaching.

6.2.4.1 Learning is fun

On many occasions I heard both the teacher-observers and students describe the

demonstration teaching as full of fun. One teacher said in the interview that, *‘Students like outings very much. I heard that they preferred learning beyond the classroom.’* The other teacher said, *‘For the lessons I attended, I saw that the students enjoyed learning because they were free to move around in the classroom’.* All the teacher-observers agreed that students enjoyed the lessons very much. Even students wrote in their portfolios that they enjoyed the lessons. Students described the water sample test as ‘fun’, and the recycle paper workshop as ‘enjoyable’ in the interviews. The happy and enjoyable feeling helped students learn and made a deep impression. This was evident from the interview results; after nearly two years students still could remember the details of these activities.

6.2.4.2 Reflective ability developed

Reflection is a significant feature of both action learning and action research so the experimental teaching placed emphasis on students’ reflections through their portfolio writing. Before the start of the action learning demonstration, the four teacher-observers doubted how much primary students could reflect from their learning. Results from the first cycle of research showed that students did have the ability to reflect. In their portfolios and social survey reports, students reflected that good citizens should have the obligation to keep the city clean and to protect the environment. As advocated by McGill and Beaty (1996) reflection can help students

develop their awareness of the complexity of the internal and external world (p.34).

6.2.4.3 Social commitment

Action learning can develop students' social responsibility and commitment. This is well demonstrated in table 6.6 in section 6.2.2.3, showing that more than half of the class indicated in their portfolios and social survey reports that they regarded civic and social responsibility as the solution to environmental problems. The results found in this part of study were consistent with Holden's (1998) and Jones's (2000) studies as described in Chapter Four.

It is worth noting that the action learning activities changed students conceptions and values. Before the implementation of the demonstration teaching, I had asked the experimental group about their perception of environmental protection; what problems we were facing; the resolutions to them and who should take responsibility in protecting the environment. Students gave superficial answers to my questions and nearly the whole class said that it was the government's responsibility to protect the environment. After their participation in social inquiry activities in the actual world, though their answers to these questions were quite different, they began to realize that it was not solely the government's responsibility, it was also the responsibility and obligation of citizens to protect the government.

6.3 DISCUSSION

6.3.1 *Feasibility of action learning strategy in primary school*

I have explained in previous paragraphs that three of the four teacher-observers changed their attitude about the feasibility of implementing the action learning strategy from negative in the beginning to positive at the end. Elliott (1991) asserts that teachers' psychological belief is that theory is usually not applicable in reality (pp.46-48). This explains the initial response of the four teacher-observers at the first interview. Teachers gave many reasons for the impracticability, such as the time needed, the heavy workload, lack of resources, lack of manpower, etc. Appendix 6.1 provides information about the background of the teacher-observers and their attitudes to teaching. The teacher's personality affected their perception of action learning. For example, teacher B was an easy going, energetic and friendly teacher. She supported the action learning strategy from the first activity. Teacher D, though she was the youngest of the four, was quite aloof. This attitude can be explained by her very low attendance at the demonstration lessons. She was consistently negative towards the feasibility of the action learning strategy.

Teachers' attitudes changed when they had seen the effectiveness of action learning in each of the activities. Their reaction to action learning did, to an extent, create obstacles to future implementation. Based on their feedback, I decided to

provide individual tutorials to the experimental teacher so as to give more ideas about curriculum planning. In other words, the second cycle of action research was not only a research project on the effectiveness of learning, but also on the effectiveness of teaching as well. I anticipated that after some individual tutorials, the experimental teacher's teaching competence in action learning could be enhanced.

The teachers were concerned that the portfolio and diary assignments would increase the burden of homework. Their concern was realistic and provoked me to think of solutions. As a result, in the subsequent year, though students still had to write diaries, the format was simplified and more guidelines were given to students. Furthermore, students were no longer required to keep a portfolio.

Nevertheless, special attention should be paid to the matter of 'time'. As criticized by the teacher-observers, action learning is an activity based, learner-centred and participatory form of learning. Teachers have to provide opportunities for students to experience authentic situations which require more time than didactic teaching. To resolve this problem, I advised the experimental teacher to arrange all the outdoor activities after normal school hours¹⁰. That means students would have their outdoor activities arranged in the afternoon.

The pilot project showed that it is not easy to change teachers' beliefs. A lot of

¹⁰ In Hong Kong, some schools have two sessions, the A.M. and P.M. sessions. Each session is managed by a head teacher. The experimental school is the A.M. school. The normal timetable is from 7.50 a.m. to 12.30 p.m. Students are free in the afternoon.

preliminary work is necessary in order to gain teachers' support.

6.3.2 *Effectiveness of the action learning strategy*

The response and reactions of students proved that action learning was effective in the respects of knowledge, skills and values. Through action learning, students learned through experience gained from activities. This way of learning helped students identify the problems and think about the solutions, for example, the human factor was responsible for polluting the river so people had to obey the regulations. As described by a teacher-observer at the second interview, *'students have deeper understanding about the cleanliness of the community they are living in. They realized that the habit of residents, the locations of rubbish bins, etc. are all the factors in keeping a clean community.'*

In a didactic approach, students sometimes regurgitate what they have learned without really understanding the reasons behind it. In contrast, through the process of action learning, students worked together. They discussed and shared their views and opinions. They explored the causes of pollution and investigated the possible solutions. The learning outcomes of each activity illustrated that students were able to study a matter from different perspectives. This learning approach addresses the motto 'Learning to Learn' set by the Curriculum Development Council in 2002. The action learning strategy demonstrates that the skills of learning how to learn can

enhance understanding of concepts and values. The results of post-project interview supported this view.

Action learning pedagogy provides opportunities for students to acquire and apply skills. In this demonstration teaching, various skills were developed, for example, inquiry skills, problem-solving and decision-making skills, collaboration skills, observation skills, social awareness, communication skills and many others. The data in table 6.5 (section 6.2.2.2) and table 6.6 (section 6.2.2.3) illustrated that students had made progress in developing the aforesaid skills.

With respect to values, students demonstrated in their portfolios that their values in the 4 Rs were strengthened. They showed more concern for the local environment. They were also aware that they had to work collaboratively with others. However, I found that students did not easily work collaboratively with each other. They needed further development in this aspect.

Furthermore, I was aware that many students in the experimental group were rather egocentric; as described in the previous paragraphs, many of them were gifted children, but they did not show respect for others. Some students even had poor self-control. Some students played around in the classroom during discussion. These scenarios displayed that students needed improvement in self-control.

6.3.3 Changes that action learning have brought about in citizenship education

Action research is a channel for students and teachers to change their conceptions, values and attitudes. As advocated by McGill and Beaty (1996), the power of action learning is learning through experience in order to change rather than simply repeating previous patterns (p.22). Evidence from the interviews with teachers and students, and students' portfolios demonstrated that both groups had, to a certain extent, changed their conceptions and values. Three of the four teachers also changed their conception of action learning from basically skeptical to optimistically practical; they admitted that an action learning strategy was feasible in citizenship education though one only supported it with conditions that there would be additional resources, in terms of human resources and teaching resources. Students showed their concern for environmental protection, and the need for collaboration in group work after their learning through the demonstration teaching. All these changes were of benefit to teachers, from the perspective of professional development, and to students, from the perspective of nurturing good citizenship.

To sum up the results of the demonstration teaching, it was shown to be feasible and practical in a primary school, though some potential technical problems such as additional help in outdoor activity, and the matter of timetabling activities would arise in implementation. Regarding effectiveness, in general, action learning was

effective in the respect of knowledge, skills and values. In order to focus more sharply in the second and third cycles of action research, I agreed with the teachers that we should focus on the feasibility, and effectiveness of action learning, and on changes in attitudes. Teachers also agreed that the research project should continue in the following year.

From the experience gained in the demonstration teaching, I identified five moral values for subsequent investigation, viz. respect for others, collaboration, participation, care and concern for society, and self-control. These five values are also the qualities of good citizens as discussed in chapter two. The rationale for selecting these five moral values is: firstly, participation is an essential quality of a good citizen. As stipulated in chapter two, three and four, good citizenship in 21st century involves active participation. Furthermore, the 'Learning to Learn' document stipulates that developing active citizenship is the future trend in citizenship education. Thus, I was interested to know how the experimental group perceived participation. Secondly, the first cycle of action research illustrated that students had problems in cooperation and collaboration, respect for others, civic and social concern and self-control. In this regard, I wished to investigate whether these attitudes would change with a purposefully designed action learning curriculum. Thirdly, these five moral values are listed in the CDC (1996) *Civic Education Guidelines for Schools* as core values

that good citizens should embrace. Based on these reasons, I decided to focus on changes in these five values in the second and third cycles of the action research.

6.4 CONCLUSION

Action learning was shown to be feasible and effective in the evaluation of demonstration teaching. From both the teachers and students' feedback in the interviews, we could see that teachers' attitude towards action learning had changed from uncertain and reserved attitudes at the first meeting to more supportive with an active willingness to try at the end. All the four teacher-observers agreed that action learning was feasible, though two teachers remarked that they would only adopt it if sufficient teaching time and adequate resources were available.

The outcomes of learning in demonstration teaching illustrated that students were able to demonstrate understanding of the four Rs. They recognized that good citizens had an obligation to protect the environment, not only the government. Students also demonstrated that they had problems in collaboration, respect for others and self-control. The second and third cycles focus on development of these values. The results will be discussed in the later chapters.

CHAPTER SEVEN

PLANNING AND IMPLEMENTING THE ACTION LEARNING PROJECT

7.1 INTRODUCTION

Reflection on the experience and outcomes of the demonstration teaching indicated that action learning pedagogy was feasible in the experimental school. Teacher-observers had pointed out the potential problems if action learning were to be implemented in their teaching environment. Nevertheless, these were administrative matters that could be resolved. These ‘problems’, identified as time, workload and resources; became the guidelines for programme planning of the second action research cycle.

Data from interviews with teachers and students and students’ portfolios in the demonstration teaching indicated that students enjoyed learning citizenship education through activities and under a freer learning atmosphere. Results illustrated that students preferred learning beyond the classroom. Furthermore, findings also indicated that students’ values such as responsibility, cooperation, and respect for others had developed during the school service project. Their responses provided important messages for the design of classroom teaching for the second cycle of action research and the third cycle of service learning. As a result, this chapter mainly discusses the following questions: (1) what did the experimental teaching tell

us about action learning pedagogy? (2) How did I respond to the findings of the demonstration teaching? (3) What were the rationales for the design of the second and third cycles of action research? (4) What methodology did I employ in the subsequent cycles of the action research?

7.2 WHAT DID DEMONSTRATION TEACHING TELL US ABOUT ACTION LEARNING?

7.2.1 *Effectiveness in citizenship education*

The recent curriculum documents *Learning to Learn* (CDC, 2001) indicates that the implementation of moral and civic education should be learner-focused. Learning opportunities should be provided for students to develop and reflect on their values and attitudes using events relevant to their daily life (CDC, 2001, p.84). The document also says that moral and civic education and community service are two of the five essential learning experiences for students in their basic education (CDC, 2001, p.20). The implication is that teaching and learning in the contemporary society should change from a traditional didactic approach to child-centred, participatory learning and should be related to life examples. This innovation in teaching strategy has created considerable anxiety in the educational field. In Chapter five, I explained how the special features of action learning fit the new trends

in curriculum reform. My demonstration teaching in a primary school aimed to find out its effectiveness and feasibility.

Findings in the demonstration teaching revealed that through action learning, students were able to identify problems and to suggest resolutions. They were able to demonstrate their skills in problem-solving, decision-making, collaboration and reflective-inquiry. Moreover, action learning appeared to help students build up positive values, particularly in relation to civic and social responsibility, and care and concern for society. About half of the experimental group displayed their attitudes of care for society, social concern and responsibility through the action learning activities. It is important to note that in comparison with other activities within the demonstration teaching, students had developed the values of collaboration, responsibility and respect for others most from the school service project. Some students had experienced the importance of cooperation and collaboration amongst team members, and stated in their portfolios and interviews that they needed to learn to work collaboratively with each other. More than half of the experimental group had shown some development in responsibility during the school service project. This indicated that level of participation is related to values development. All these outcomes learned from the experimental teaching are essential qualities of good citizens as envisaged in learning to learn. In this sense, the effectiveness of action

learning has played an important role in citizenship education.

7.2.2 *Feasibility of action learning in Hong Kong primary schools*

Action learning is a new term in learning and teaching citizenship education in Hong Kong. Its special features, as specified in Chapter four and five, are that it is child-centred, collaborative, participative and reflective. Students learn citizenship through the experience of working collaboratively with their members, then reflect on what they have learned. It would be beneficial if students could learn in an authentic environment in order to have a deeper understanding of society and the world. This strategy covers various kinds of learning activity that we have often used in our learning and teaching; in fact, it could be seen as old wine in a new bottle. The special elements that are quite new to teachers are the inclusion of service learning and reflection in action learning. Schools have had much experience of community service, but this service has had no relation with the curriculum. In other words, students have had no chance to apply knowledge and skills learned in the classroom to serve in the community.

The demonstration teaching aimed to demonstrate to teachers the key ideas of action learning. Therefore, when I designed the programme, I purposely included a variety of activities such as social enquiry, discussion, field-based study, experiments, and a service project in the demonstrations to the General Studies teachers. In

addition, I also asked students of the experimental group to construct portfolios. Portfolio assessment was introduced to all teachers in *Learning to Learn* (CDC, 2001) and the *General Studies Curriculum Guide* (CDC, 2002), is a new assessment method in Hong Kong. According to Nitko (2000), there are two main types of portfolios: show-case and developmental. As my purpose is to develop students' reflective ability, therefore, I chose the developmental type of portfolio.

The feedback from the four teacher-observers, in general, was positive in respect of feasibility. Teachers changed from a negative attitude at the first meeting to generally positive at the end. Nevertheless, teachers contended that there were problems in implementation such as the timetable, a congested curriculum and portfolio assessment. Teachers' concern about the timetable was understandable. Given that the school would only be able to allow one to two double lessons of 70 minutes per week for citizenship education; there would be insufficient time for the field-based study and social enquiry activities that I included in the demonstration teaching. As a result, the teachers suggested arranging all the outdoor activities after normal school hours so that they could have the whole afternoon for outdoor activities. Their suggestion showed optimism about the development of action learning because it meant that they were willing to try action learning strategies both in their teaching and outside normal school hours. The teachers also agreed that acting as a facilitator

could provoke students' critical thinking and thus enhance learning.

There were other obstacles to the adoption of action learning. First, teachers remarked that there was limited space for action learning strategies because the current curriculum was very congested. Second, teachers had no confidence in the new assessment format – portfolios. They reckoned portfolio assessment would possibly cause queries and complaints from parents. Moreover, marking portfolios was very time consuming, they could not afford too much time for marking. Despite these obstacles, teachers agreed that action learning was feasible in their teaching of citizenship education.

Evidence from the demonstration teaching encouraged me to proceed to the next plan of action research. The second cycle of action research aimed at testing the effectiveness of an action learning pedagogy in a real teaching context under normal teaching conditions. The demonstration teaching was specially arranged. The teacher-observers had not regarded demonstration teaching as ordinary teaching. In order to address the research questions set in Chapter five, a survey of normal classroom teaching was necessary. The outcomes of the school service project in the demonstration teaching supported the theories of service learning reviewed in Chapter four, namely that service learning should help develop students' responsibility, care and concern for society, build up their self-esteem and develop positive attitudes.

Through service learning, students have opportunities to apply knowledge and skills. It also provides opportunity for students to understand the real world. Taking into consideration the benefits of service learning in citizenship education, I then decided to implement a service learning project for the experimental group. This would be the third cycle of action research.

7.3 HOW DID I RESPOND TO THE FINDINGS IN THE DEMONSTRATION TEACHING?

7.3.1 Seeking support and approval from school administrators for the implementation of the later parts of action research

Based on the results of the demonstration teaching, I discussed the design and implementation of the project during the summer holidays with the school principal and the coordinator of school curriculum development. At this meeting, we discussed the framework for the second and third cycles of action research. I reported the findings from the demonstration teaching, and asked for their permission to further explore the action learning pedagogy with the same group of students in the new academic year. I proposed to conduct classroom teaching on action learning with one of the teacher-observers for three months and the service learning project for another three months with the same group of students. As explained in Chapter six,

General Studies was the most suitable subject for implementation of citizenship education. I therefore suggested to the principal that the second cycle of action research should take place in General Studies lessons. The school principal had given her fullest support to the whole research project. She endorsed my proposal so the second and third cycles of action learning research were possible. Having considered the matter of continuity and suitability, the principal agreed that the experimental group for the project would be the same group of students as in the demonstration lessons. The experimental teacher would be teacher C, one of the teacher-observers because she already had an understanding of action learning pedagogy. In addition, she was the General Studies teacher of the experimental group in primary six. I was delighted to hear from the school administrators that they would give their fullest support to all the outdoor activities, including timetable arrangements, issuing letters to parents for their consent to outdoor activities and service learning, and transportation arrangements, etc.

The principal then assigned the curriculum coordinator and teacher C to follow up all the work with me. After many discussions with the curriculum coordinator, I had more knowledge about the curriculum design, timetabling and assessment system of the school. This information was important because it would affect the planning of the second and third action research cycles. The school had already fixed the

General Studies teaching syllabus and this had implications for the programme. All the classes at that level had to follow the same syllabus. Teacher C recommended several topics for the action learning pedagogy, such as 'My Country', 'Problems of the World', 'Our Environment'. Though the teaching syllabus was fixed, we still had the freedom to design the content and learning activities. Another factor that affected our planning was the feasibility of portfolio assessment. If the grade of the portfolio were taken into account as part of the General Studies assessment, then it would affect the academic achievement of the experimental group and other classes as well because it was a matter of fairness that the assessments for students in the same school should be identical. The principal reminded me that the assessment results would influence students' secondary placement; therefore, the school could not support any new assessment method in this critical year. All these issues had to be settled together with the experimental teacher.

7.3.2 Identifying what to study in the second and third cycles of action research

The essence of action learning (including service learning) is that it promotes students' personal and social development, fostering civic responsibility and care (McGill & Beaty, 1996; Waterman, 1997; Wade, 2000; Kinsley & McPherson, 1997).

To explore whether or not action learning could bring about changes in these values, I had identified five moral values, viz. respect for others, collaboration, participation,

civic and social concern, and self-regulation. These five moral values were based on the qualities that a good citizen should possess. A good citizen, as asserted by Heater (1990), should have high sense of responsibility and should participate actively in work and in society. These qualities of responsibility and active participation are expected in the 21st century (CDC, 2002a; QCA, 1998). In this connection, the values of responsibility and participation were the focus of study. The design of group activities in the second cycle, such as a drama competition, and the birthday party, and the fun fair in the third cycle, were intended to encourage participation and enhance responsibility. It was anticipated that students' sense of responsibility could be developed through group tasks.

A good citizen should also know how to work with others, show respect for others, and know how and when to control themselves (CDC, 1996; CDC, 2002a). However, the experimental group showed that they were weak in these qualities in the demonstration teaching. Therefore, these values needed to be strengthened in the subsequent parts of study. The experimental teacher supported my view and she thought that group work might help develop students' sense of collaboration, respect for others and self-regulation. In this sense, we put emphasis on the element of group activities in the second and third cycles of action research. Through group work, participants experienced the process and reflected on their actions (McGill and

Beaty, 1996; Marquart, 1999).

Apart from the above qualities, a good citizen should also show care and concern for society. As pointed out by Crick (2000), knowing the society well is the fundamental quality of citizenship (p.7). As a result, the experimental teacher had used examples related to her teaching topics in order to arouse students' awareness of what happened in contemporary society. Another way to develop students' care and concern for society was service learning. As de Winter (1996) contends, community service and active participation are effective in nurturing students' sense of belonging and care for society.

Therefore, respect for others, collaboration, participation, care and concern for society, and self-regulation were the five moral values that were identified for development in the second and third cycles.

7.3.3 Planning for the second cycle of action research with the experimental teacher

7.3.3.1 The teaching plan

The experimental teacher had declared her interest in adopting action learning pedagogy in citizenship education through General Studies teaching. Her interest was based on two reasons: first, she was the General Studies teacher of the experimental group; second, the experience gained would be useful in her part-time degree study.

The experimental teacher and I had met three times before the commencement of the second cycle of action research and had had many telephone conversations during the implementation of classroom teaching. Our first meeting was mainly to discuss the integration of theory and practice. I explained to the experimental teacher that her lessons should contain the three special features of action learning: collaboration, participation and reflection. Moreover, the learning must be child-centred. The experimental teacher expressed concern about how reflection could be enhanced if we could not use portfolios. After extended discussion and thought, we decided that every worksheet, could have a column for ‘my feeling/thinking in this activity’ in which students would have to write about their feeling, opinions or ideas about the activity.

The second meeting was to decide which theme would be selected for action research. Originally, the teacher had preferred to try out the action learning strategy in the first semester. However, after considering her personal commitment to a part-time degree course, she moved the schedule to the second semester, from March to May. The themes taught during that period were ‘Problems in the World’ and ‘Our Environment’. The topics under ‘Problems in the World’ included ‘Population’ and ‘Poverty’. For ‘Our Environment’, the teaching would cover ‘the problem of air pollution in Hong Kong. The teaching schedule is displayed in table 7.1.

Table 7.1 Teaching schedule of the second cycle of action research

Month	Topic
March 2002	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Problems in the World: Population • Problems in the World: Poverty
April 2002	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Problems in the World: Poverty Easter break and mid-term examination
May 2002	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Our Environment: Problems of air pollution in Hong Kong

The break in the middle of the second cycle of action research was quite long. Apart from the two weeks Easter break, no teaching was conducted in the week prior to the mid-term examination.

Another meeting discussed the activities for the action learning pedagogy. The experimental teacher worried very much that the topics she would be going to teach were content-based, particularly the topics of ‘population’ and ‘poverty’. Her previous experience of teaching these topics had been very didactic. She had used a ‘chalk and talk’ approach so she had reservations whether or not the activities met the criteria of action learning. I then reminded her that activities like inquiry, role playing, debates, case studies, discussion, games, etc. could be used in the teaching and learning of action learning. But, the essential elements: ‘collaboration’ and ‘reflection’ should not be neglected. We planned most of the lessons together using action learning pedagogy. For some lessons, because of the unavailability of either the experimental teacher or me, the experimental teacher planned the lessons on her

own, for example, on the topics of ‘mobility of population’ and ‘resolutions of poverty’.

7.3.3.2 Reflectivity of the experimental teacher and the experimental group

Reflection is one of the specific features of action learning and action research (Close Up Foundation, 1995; McGill & Beaty, 1996; Elliott, 1991; Kemmis, 1998), and the *Learning to Learn – The Way Forward in Curriculum Development* (CDC, 2001) document expects students to reflect on their values through active participation (p.84). Therefore, the experimental teacher and I spent some time discussing how to enhance students’ reflective skills. Portfolio assessment is a very useful method to train students to write about their opinions and explain their views on issues that affect themselves and society. Nevertheless, because of the assessment system in Hong Kong portfolio assessment was not possible in this year as already explained. We therefore could not use portfolio as the channel for reflection. The experimental teacher and I had proposed several ideas which included a diary, journal writing. At last, the experimental teacher suggested adding a column headed ‘My feeling about this activity’ in the worksheet for each activity. In other words, students had to write something about their opinions on the activity. We hoped we could collect feedback from students in this way.

To enhance her own reflection, the experimental teacher kept a teaching log

during the second cycle of action research. The content of the teaching log included the following items:

- Lesson title
- Teaching objectives or expected learning outcomes
- Focus (what civic values you aim to teach?)
- Activities used to achieve the teaching objectives
- Evaluation of the activities
- Difficulty(ies) encountered
- Suggested resolution(s) to the difficulty(ies)
- Reflection

However, when I suggested observing some lessons, she was reluctant. She explained that my presence would create pressure for her. After much deliberation, I explained to her that the purpose of observation was not to supervise her; it was in fact to test the theory of action learning. The results from her teaching would help to influence the development of citizenship education in future. She relaxed and agreed to the arrangement. This incident illustrates the sensitivity of any new pedagogy and its importance of full discussion.

7.3.3.3 The role of teacher in citizenship education

The importance of facilitators in citizenship education is specified in the *Learning to*

Learn – The Way Forward in Curriculum Development (CDC, 2001) document: ‘In the school context, principals and teachers are crucial facilitators in students’ values formation. Various means of support will be provided to enhance their professional competency, empowering them to be effective facilitators in developing students’ positive values and attitudes (CDC, 2001, p.84).’ A facilitator should be open-minded; he/she leads students to think and to find the answers instead of telling them directly. It is impossible to nurture democratic citizen if learning is didactic.

The experimental teacher worried whether she could change her role as a facilitator in a short period. Her worry was understandable. It was impossible to change the style of teaching she had used for so many years overnight. To relieve her anxiety, I gave her some suggestions for change, for example, to allow students to talk more; to use more questioning to provoke students’ thinking instead of giving the answers; and the ‘what’, ‘who’, ‘when’, ‘why’ and ‘how’ questioning technique. This research was a good opportunity for professional development for the experimental teacher.

7.3.4 Planning for the third cycle of action research

Service learning project is a valuable opportunity for children to experience group work, collaboration and cooperation, the reality of society and to enhance their learning and social skills. However, to design a relevant service learning project for

the experimental group was not an easy task. First, the experimental group was too young to take up a service learning project such as service rendered in hospital. Second, it would enhance the children's learning if the service learning project was related to the theme covered in the classroom. Third, the service learning project should be within the children's ability. If it were too difficult, it would have a detrimental effect.

When I was puzzled about what kind of service learning would be suitable for the experimental group, I was fortunate to meet the school principal of a special school for seriously mentally handicapped children. In our conversation, the school principal told me that the school would organize a project on environmental protection for the handicapped children in 2002 and was looking for helpers. He told me that the rationale for organizing the activity was to provide opportunities for the handicapped children to have contact with 'ordinary' people, particularly children of a similar age group. This coincidence provided an excellent opportunity for the experimental group. The title of the project that the special school wished to organize coincided with my action learning project, and the nature of service was meaningful.

I immediately transmitted this message to the coordinator for school curriculum development. The coordinator suggested implementing the service learning project

after April 2002 because the activities conducted by the school would not affect the result of secondary school placement. Parents could have no complaint and no worry about the project’s effect on the future placement of their children. After negotiation with the principal of the special school, it was decided to implement the service learning project from May to July 2002.

Children of the experimental group would visit the special school on every Friday afternoon during that period. Each visit would last for two hours. The special school had given us the framework for the activities and would be responsible for all the expenditure for the service learning project, except the transportation from the experimental school to the special school. The schedule and programme of the service learning project was planned as follows:

Date	Activity	Remarks
May 2002	Briefing of the programme by the teacher-in-charge of the special school	
May 2002	Healthy Food in Supermarket Teaching the handicapped children what food available in supermarket was good for health.	Outdoor activity
May 2002	Protecting the Natural Environment Teaching the handicapped children the rules in park and garden	Outdoor activity
May 2002	Life skill Eating and drinking	The experimental group had to teach the handicapped children the skill of using fork and straw for eating and drinking.
June 2002	‘Good’ Food for Birthday Party Good food means healthy food, not junk	The experimental group had to prepare food and activities for

	food.	birthday party. The allowance for each small group was \$50.
June 2002	Protecting the Environment at Home Teaching the handicapped children the concept of rubbish and the use of rubbish bin	The experimental group served as helpers in this activity.
June 2002	Preparation for Fun Fair	The experimental group had to design games for the handicapped children. The budget of each stall game was \$100, but advised to use as little as possible.
July 2002	Preparation for Fun Fair	
July 2002	Fun Fair	The experimental group had to conduct the fun fair, organizing the stall games, distributing prizes, etc.

The service learning project was aligned with the teaching curriculum because students could apply what they had learnt about environmental protection in this service learning project. For example, they had to teach the handicapped children to keep the rules and regulations in the park and to appreciate the beauty of nature. They had to consider what kind of food was suitable for the handicapped children while they prepared for the birthday party. They had to use their previous knowledge of ‘reduce’, ‘reuse’, ‘recycle’ and ‘reproduce’ when they planned and designed the stall games. Besides applying knowledge in the service project, members of the experimental group had opportunities to work closely with other team members in their planning and implementing, using their skills in collaboration, problem-solving, decision-making, etc.

7.4 WHAT WAS THE RATIONALE FOR THE DESIGN OF THE SECOND AND THIRD CYCLES OF ACTION RESEARCH?

7.4.1 *The rationale for the planning of classroom teaching – the second cycle of action research*

The second cycle of action research was mainly conducted by the experimental teacher. This time we changed roles. We planned the lesson together but she played the role of ‘insider’ and I acted as ‘observer’ in her classroom teaching. As stipulated in McNiff (2002), “generating theories about work has to begin with work” (p.4), so teaching by a ‘regular’ teacher in a ‘normal’ context should give answers to the research questions. The objectives of planning the classroom teaching were to test the theory taught by an in-service teacher in a real teaching environment, and to enhance teacher’s mastery skills in citizenship education. Does this mean that the experimental teaching was unrealistic? The teaching was definitely realistic, as I had considered the issue of ‘real situations’ while planning the experimental teaching together with the curriculum development coordinator. There is much concern about the excessive stress and high pressure of work on teachers of Hong Kong. A new teaching strategy means more work for them. It is a natural defensive mechanism of human beings to deny or reject anything that threatens the stability of existing practice. Because I was not a primary teacher, but a teacher trainer, teachers would

query evidence about the benefits of action learning if it were solely taught by me. Secondly, the teaching time for each demonstration lesson was 10 minutes longer than a normal timetable. Teachers would not believe that action learning could have the same result in an actual timetable. In this sense, if the theory of action learning could be applied by an in-service teacher with favourable results, its impact in changing teaching pedagogy would be greater. In other words, the results of the classroom teaching by the experimental teacher could serve as a showcase to all primary school teachers.

The aims of experimental teaching were to test the feasibility of action learning in a primary school and to demonstrate to teachers the meaning of action learning. If the objectives of action research and action learning are to improve education, then the details of what to improve were not fixed by the first cycle of action research. For example, I could not determine which moral values the experimental group needed to develop, and which aspects of pedagogy the experimental teacher required for her own professional development in the first cycle. The findings of the demonstration teaching illustrated that the target group had some fundamental understanding of the values such as responsibility, concern for society and collaboration. However, whether or not students could further develop these values from 'normal' teaching and learning should be investigated. Therefore, another

rationale for arranging classroom teaching was to investigate whether or not students' five moral values, namely collaboration, respect for others, participation, care and concern for society, and self-regulation, changed or improved through action learning pedagogy.

We must not forget the important role of the teacher in action learning. In didactic teaching, the teacher plays the key role and dominates learning. The learning atmosphere can be stagnant and boring (Kinsley and McPherson, 1995). Students do not have right and freedom to learn what they want to learn, nor to take an active part in their own learning. In action learning, the teacher plays the role of facilitator to guide students in learning how to learn. This role change is important and crucial to the success of action learning. Students reflected in the demonstration teaching that a freer learning atmosphere stimulated their interest to learn. As a result, another rationale for classroom teaching is to provide opportunities for the experimental teacher to become a facilitator instead of a knowledge transmitter. I hoped that the second cycle would throw light on the effectiveness, feasibility and the importance of the facilitator role in action learning.

7.4.2 Rationale for the planning of service learning -- the third cycle of action research

The benefits of service learning in citizenship education have been well articulated,

for example by Dewey (1916), Waterman (1997), Rhoads (1997), Wade (1997, 2000), Kinsely and McPherson (1995), etc. Wade (1997) distinguishes service learning from community service, arguing that the former is not an extra-curricular activity. It is a pedagogical method, a means for students to apply knowledge and skills in the real world (p.20). The Alliance for Service-Learning in Education Reform (1993) defines service learning as an integration of community service with the academic curriculum. Kinsley and McPherson (1995) emphasize that the benefits of service learning in citizenship education are that it encourages students to develop their moral and social self, their care for society and their sense of responsibility.

There is much strong evidence showing that service learning provides a good opportunity for attitudinal and values change. Nevertheless, the majority of the successful projects took place in secondary schools. Only a few service learning projects have been in primary schools. In this connection, the applicability of service learning in primary school in Hong Kong is in doubt. It was hoped that the empirical data could add to evidence of successful service learning. A further rationale for the service learning was to explore whether the experimental group had demonstrated any attitudinal change on the completion of the service project. The targeted five moral values for change were the same as in classroom learning, viz. respect for others, collaboration, participation, care and care for society, and

self-regulation.

Based on the theory and benefits of service learning, the design of the service learning project cohered with the theme of ‘Environmental Protection’ by which students would be able to apply their knowledge and skills learned in the classroom to the service project as mentioned in section 7.3.4.

7.5 WAS ACTION RESEARCH EMPLOYED IN THE LATER STAGES OF RESEARCH?

7.5.1 *Action research methodology*

As described in diagram 5.6, the whole research project was an action research project.

Action research, according to Hart and Bond (1995),

- 1 is educative;
- 2 deals with individuals as members of social groups;
- 3 is problem-focused, context specific and future-oriented;
- 4 involves a change intervention;
- 5 aims at improvement and involvement;
- 6 involves a cyclic process in which research, action and evaluation are interlinked;
- 7 is founded on a research relationship in which those involved are participants in

the change process. (Hart and Bond, 1995, pp.37-38)

This research comprises the significant features of action teaching. First, it was a spiral research, with three action-reflection cycles, viz. the experimental teaching, the classroom teaching and the service learning. Second, each cycle had the stages of planning, implementing, observing and reflecting. Third, this was a research project with one or a team of partners. I worked together with a group of teachers, the teacher-observers in the first cycle, the experimental teacher in the second cycle, and the teachers as helpers in the third cycle. Fourthly, this research aimed at seeking improvement and change in the teaching and learning of citizenship education in primary schools through action learning pedagogy. As asserted by McNiff (1988), Park (2001), and Kemmis (1988) action research aims for improvement and change. McTaggart (1997) advocates that action research “seems likely to lead to improvement... from evaluating the results of strategies tried out in practice” (p.28). Elliott (1991) also argued, “The fundamental aim of action research is to improve practice rather than to produce knowledge” (p.49). The major aim of this research addresses the ideas of these scholars. Last but not least, this research stressed the importance of reflection. As Reason and Bradbury (2001) said, “action without reflection and understanding is blind” (p.2). Therefore, reflection was the focus point in my study.

Regarding the cyclic feature of this research, the experimental teaching conducted by myself was the first cycle, serving as a reconnaissance for the second cycle of action research. Based on the information collected from the first cycle, modification of teaching was made because of the different timetable and different teacher. The second cycle was classroom teaching in which I worked together with a teacher of the experimental school. This experimental teacher was my working partner. Her performance in teaching and her reflection would be the empirical data on the effectiveness of action learning strategy. At this stage, apart from studying the teaching competence of the experimental teacher, students' performance in class would also be important data. I expected to see whether the experimental group would demonstrate any changes in the five moral values.

7.5.2 Refocusing the research questions

Based on the findings and experience in the first cycle of action research, I had to revise the research questions drafted for the demonstration teaching in order to meet the objectives of the second and third cycles. Before drafting the research questions, I had to consider the following: first, I had a working partner for the second cycle of action research. Her perception of action learning in citizenship education and performance in the classroom teaching would greatly affect any conclusions I might reach about action learning in citizenship education. Secondly, I had identified five

moral values for further investigation. How should I assess these five moral values in the research project? Thirdly, the experimental group would conduct a service learning project in a special school for the seriously mentally handicapped children for three months. Many service reports, such as ACT (1995), and academic journals have reported the achievements of service learning. Would the experimental group demonstrate any achievement in the service project? Fourthly, how far would students change their five moral values after the service project? How could I show whether change occurred?

As a result, refocusing the research questions was necessary. Given that there were changes in research, simultaneously the research questions were changed as follows:

1. How far is the facilitator role important in action learning? Can the facilitator role enhance the learning atmosphere in learning?
2. Has action learning helped develop teacher's teaching competence?
3. Is an action learning pedagogy effective in citizenship education? What has the experimental group learned in citizenship education?
4. Have the experimental group demonstrated any changes in the five identified moral values, viz. collaboration, respect for others, participation,

care and concern for society, and self-regulation in the second cycle of action research, i.e. classroom teaching?

5. Have the experimental group demonstrated any changes in the five identified moral values, viz. collaboration, respect for others, participation, care and concern for society, and self-regulation in the third cycle of action research, i.e. service learning?
6. What benefits have action learning brought about in citizenship education?
7. What are the factors contributing to success or failure in action learning pedagogy?
8. What benefits does action learning pedagogy bring to citizenship education? What are the implications of the results of this study for the implementation of citizenship education?

7.5.3 *Methods of data collection*

7.5.3.1 Observations

Observational data are important and valuable because they provide firsthand information in research. Merriam et al. (2002) comments that “Observational data represent a firsthand encounter with the phenomenon of interest rather than a second hand account attained in an interview... Observation is the best technique when an activity, event, or situation can be observed firsthand, when a fresh perspective is

desired, or when participants are not able or willing to discuss the phenomenon under study” (Merriam et al., 2002, p.13). Therefore, I would use observation as one of the methods for data collection. I would observe how the experimental teacher played her role as facilitator, the interaction between students and teacher, and the response from students.

There are two broad types of observations: participant observation and non-participant observation. Kumar (1999) defines the differences between these two types of observations as follows:

Participant observation is when a researcher participates in the activities of the group being observed in the same manner as its members, with or without their knowing that they are being observed...Non-participant observation, on the other hand, is when the researcher does not get involved in the activities of the group but remains a passive observer, watching and listening to its activities and drawing conclusions from this. (Kumar, 1999, p.109)

In my research project, both types of observations were used. In the second cycle, when I observed General Studies teaching in the classroom, I played the role of non-participant in teaching but participated in lesson planning. I observed how the teacher used action learning in her teaching, students’ responses and reactions, teacher’s role in teaching, etc. All the observed lessons were videotaped. The purpose of recording the lesson was not only for the research; it could also be used in the evaluation meetings with the research teacher. At the beginning, I had thought of

using an observation scale in order to record the action learning teaching. After serious consideration, as the teacher was rather nervous and lacking in confidence, I concluded that a scale might have a detrimental effect on her teaching. This idea was therefore not pursued.

In the service learning project, for pragmatic reasons, I changed my role from non-participant to active participant. Informal observations were conducted under natural conditions. In these activities, I played the role as leader of the projects, briefing teachers on the steps in each activity, answering the children's questions and guiding them in preparation, and conducting the evaluation with the experimental group following the service learning project.

The experimental group was informed about the research project, but they did not know that their behaviours, reactions, conversations, etc, were all under my observation.

7.5.3.2 Interviews

Interviewing is a commonly used method of collecting information from respondents. The advantages of interview are many, for example it is more appropriate for complex situations; it is useful for collecting in-depth information; information can be supplemented; questions can be explained; and interviewing has a wider application (Kumar, 1999, p.115). We can collect information through different forms of

interaction with others. According to Kumar (1999), “any person-to person interaction between two or more individuals with a specific purpose in mind is called an interview” (p.109). Gilchrist (1992) gives a detailed definition of an interview.

He says,

An interview usually means some sort of formal discourse... it describes the relationship between the ethnographic researcher and the key informant from which is negotiated an understanding of the culture. A key informant provides information through formal interviews and informal verbal interchanges or conversations... The informant provides the researcher with introductions and interpretations...Key informants differ from other informants by the nature of their position in a culture and by their relationship to the researcher, which is generally one of longer duration, occurs in varied settings, and is more intimate. (p.71)

According to Gilchrist (1992), key informants are not selected randomly. They are research collaborators. He says, “The key informant first answers questions and provides the explanations – what, when, who, why, and how. As the researcher begins to formulate interpretations, it is the key informant who will expand, modify, and clarify these interpretations. The key informant will be able to help transform the researcher’s translations of the native culture into something with meaning in the researcher’s own culture. A key informant is a translator both literally and figuratively” (Gilchrist, 1992, p.78). Gilchrist’s explanation of the role

of key informant describes a special feature of this action learning project. It was a collaborative project between the General Studies teacher, the school curriculum development coordinator and myself. Therefore, these two persons became the key informants in this research project.

Other people, for example, the students, teachers who assisted in the service learning project, the class teacher of the experimental group, the school principal, parents and the social workers in the service learning project were additional informants.

There are three broad types of interviews, namely, structured, semi-structured and unstructured. In structured interviews the questions are pre-determined and prepared beforehand. In semi-structured interview the questions are planned loosely. According to Mason (2002), unstructured interviews are the most difficult. She says,

“...the qualitative interviewer has to prepare themselves to be able to “think on their feet” in the interview itself... They need to be able to ensure that the interview interaction actually does generate relevant data, which means simultaneously orchestrating the intellectual and social dynamics of the situation... A qualitative interviewer has to be ready to make on-the-spot decisions about the content and sequence of the interview as it progresses, and to keep everything running smoothly” (p.67).

Structured, semi-structured and unstructured interviews were conducted in this project. A structured interview was used for the interview with the school principal

only. As the principal was very busy, it was not possible to have a long interview so she fixed the length of the interview. For the interviews with students, teachers and parents, I mainly used semi-structured interviews. I would ask follow-up questions according to their responses. Unstructured interviews were used with the students in informal circumstances, for example, during recess time, on the trip to the special school, etc.

When designing the interview questions, I considered the six types of questions as recommended by Selltiz et al. (1964). These six types of questions are: facts, beliefs about facts, feelings and motives, standards of action, present or past behaviour and conscious reasons. In the structured interviews, with reference to the six types of questions, I asked a pre-designed set of questions, for example, in the interviews with the school principal, I asked the following pre-set questions:

- What is/are the goal(s) of citizenship education in school? (Belief)
- What qualities do you think a good citizen should possess? (Standard action & belief)
- What support does the school give to nurturing good citizens? (Facts)
- How does the school implement citizenship education? (Facts)
- Which/What teaching strategy(ies) do you think is/are feasible and effective in developing good citizens? (Feelings and motives)

- How would you comment on the action learning strategy in citizenship education? (Feelings and motives)
- Have you noticed any changes of behaviours and attitudes of the General Studies teacher and the experimental group? (Present or past behaviour)
- Could you give concrete examples of these changes? (Conscious reason)

Sometimes, though the questions were pre-determined, I would ask some spontaneous follow-up questions in order to gain a clearer picture and to collect more information from the respondents, for example, in the interviews with parents, I drafted some broad questions before the interviews. These were pre-set, open-ended, and flexible questions such as ‘Have you heard any comments or opinions from your child about the service learning project?’ For another question like “Have you noticed any change of attitudes and behaviours after the implementation of the action learning project?” When the parent answered that his/her child had shown some significant changes, I then asked some follow-up questions such as ‘How did he/she behave before?’ ‘Why did s/he behave in that way?’ in order to gain a deeper understanding of the background of the informants or the experimental group. This kind of interview could be termed a semi-structured interview. Semi-structured interviews were conducted with students, parents, teachers who assisted in the service learning project, the General Studies teacher and the school curriculum coordinator.

Unstructured interviews were usually conducted in a spontaneous atmosphere and in the natural environment; usually the respondents were not aware of the interviews. Sometimes I conducted unstructured interviews with the students, usually after the activity, or on the way to the service venue. In addition, I also used unstructured interviews with the social workers in the special school for the seriously mentally handicapped children. According to Kumar (1999), unstructured interviews can be carried out in a one-to-one situation or collectively with a group of respondents. Both types of interviews were used in the action learning project.

7.5.3.3 Documents

Many researchers regard the documents provided by the respondents as secondary sources of data collection. Kumar (1999) reminds researchers to be careful when using data from secondary sources with respect to validity and reliability, personal bias, availability and format (p.125). I was mindful of this reminder. However, action learning emphasizes ability to reflect, and so does action research. One method to enhance reflectivity is to keep a log or diary. In this connection, I asked the General Studies teacher to keep a teaching log in order to facilitate self-reflection.

The content of teaching log included the following items:

- Lesson title
- Teaching objectives or expected learning outcomes

- Focus (what civic values you aim to teach?)
- Activities used to achieve the teaching objectives
- Evaluation of the activities
- Difficulty(ies) encountered
- Suggested resolution(s) to the difficulty(ies)
- Reflection

The General Studies teacher was encouraged to record her lessons in order to facilitate self-reflection.

For reasons explained above, portfolios were not used in the second cycle of action research. However, assessment would not affect secondary school placement results in the third cycle, so I asked each student to prepare a journal for reflection on service learning. Although Kumar (1999) suggested that these documents would have the problem of personal bias, I found that the journal was a good way to understand children's thinking and feeling on some issues. Students were asked to write down their thinking and feelings about the activity, what they had learnt, what they had seen, how they felt etc. in the journal. The journals, therefore, were children's diaries. McNiff (1988) advocates that students' diaries "were very useful resources in the validation phases" (p.78). Their journals and diaries provided direct feedback from their perspectives. As the journals and diaries were not used in

formal assessment, the quality of students' writings varied. Some had very detailed description, but some did not. Some of the students even failed to submit their portfolios.

The data collected from the documents, that is, the teaching logs, students' journals and diaries, and even the taped lessons served as triangulation data.

7.5.3.4 Pretest and posttest Questionnaire survey

According to McNiff (1988), 'questionnaire will probably be used in an exploratory fashion to get an idea of trends. Enquiries conducted in an action research mode are usually to do with values, and it is very difficult to capture the nuances of opinion associated with questions of values through the precise formulation of questionnaires. Therefore, the aim of conducting the pretest and posttest questionnaire survey was to collect information about children's perception of moral and civic values only.

The questionnaire instrument used in this action learning project was self-constructed. Designing the questionnaire was very time-consuming. I had to pay attention to the following points when drafting the questionnaire. For example, as recommended by Wiersma (1991), to avoid any misunderstanding or misinterpretation of the questions, the questions must be clear and precise, wording used should suit the standard of the respondents; it is also important not to ask any leading questions, and last but not least, to avoid negative items. The questions

designed were based on the school rules and regulations, my observations and experiences in school visits, and the text of General Studies. Identical questionnaires (Appendix 7.1) were given to the respondents before and after the service learning project.

7.5.4 *Sampling*

Merriam (2002) says, "...since qualitative inquiry seeks to understand the meaning of a phenomenon from the perspectives of the participants, it is important to select a sample from which the most can be learned. This is called a purposive or purposeful sample" (p.12). Patton (1990) also argues that it is important to select "information-rich cases". He defines a purposeful sample as, "Information-rich cases are those from which one can learn a great deal about issues of central importance to the purpose of the research, thus the term purposeful sampling" (Patton, 1990, p.169).

According to Mason (2001), there are two considerations in sample selection. One is practical and resource-based issues and the other is to do with the important question of focus (p.121). The practical and resource-based issues are closely linked with the nature of study. Taking this research project as an example; since the aim of the project was to improve the teaching of citizenship education in Hong Kong primary schools, the selection of a sample had to be within the context in Hong Kong

primary schools. After a school was selected as the research school, the teachers and students involved in this project, for practical reasons, naturally became the sample in this study. This is what Mason terms as ‘practical and resource-based issues’.

The samples included students, teachers, the school principal, parents and social workers in the special school. The sample size of students was 37 in the curriculum teaching in General Studies, and 35 in the service learning project (two students did not join the project).

In total, seven teachers were involved in the project. It included the General Studies teacher, four assistants in the service learning project, the class teacher of the experimental group and the coordinator of the school curriculum. Six parents were involved in the interviews. Two parents were interviewed three times at different periods in the project, and four parents were interviewed twice; altogether fourteen interviews were conducted with parents in this project.

On the basis of research results found in the first action research cycle, students preferred to learn citizenship education through activities, particularly the activities beyond the classroom. This preference suggested that action learning was a welcome strategy to students. The evidence of students’ ability to generalize knowledge, values and in skills acquisition through action learning strategy further supported its effectiveness. These results were given in Chapter six. In this sense,

the principles of action learning as stipulated in Chapter four as child-centred learning; actively involving students in learning in small groups, and encouraging reflection were maintained in the second and third cycles of action research. Bearing in mind the outcomes of the experimental teaching and the principles of action learning, the main aim of activities planned for the second phase of action research would be similar to the first cycle, i.e. to maximize opportunities for students' participation through group work or activities, and to enhance students' reflection.

7.6 CONCLUSION

The philosophy of action learning pedagogy is identified as a pedagogy that practises the goal of curriculum reform in Hong Kong: 'learn how to learn'. The significant features of action research match with the philosophy of action learning as both seek improvement and changes through reflection. As a result, I adopted action research as the research methodology to investigate the effectiveness of an action learning pedagogy in citizenship education in Hong Kong primary schools. The second cycle of action research was classroom teaching. In this cycle, it was expected to find out whether the change of role of the experimental teacher as facilitator would facilitate the learning of citizenship education; and whether the experimental teacher had improved her teaching competence in citizenship education through the enhancement

of reflection. The other expectation in the second cycle of action research was whether the experimental group had demonstrated that their five identified moral values had changed through the action learning pedagogy. The third cycle was service learning. The planning of service learning in this research was quite different to the usual practice in primary schools. It was expected that the experimental group would demonstrate attitudinal change after the service project. A questionnaire survey constructed for this study was planned as the pretest and posttest of service learning. The data served to triangulate the qualitative data of the service learning project. It was hoped that the findings in this research would have an impact on the teaching and learning of citizenship education in Hong Kong primary schools.

CHAPTER EIGHT
EVALUATION OF THE PROJECT (I)
THE SECOND CYCLE: CLASSROOM TEACHING

8.1 INTRODUCTION

The second cycle of action research was the classroom teaching conducted by the experimental teacher. It lasted for three months and aimed to test the feasibility of action learning, to explore the effectiveness of this pedagogy in citizenship education, to investigate the importance of the role of teacher as a facilitator in teaching and learning, and to find out whether students would show changes in five identified values through the action learning pedagogy.

During the period of classroom teaching, I was able to observe ten lessons taught by the experimental teacher on three topics: 'Population', 'Poverty' and 'Air pollution', but these ten observations were not in consecutive order as the teacher's teaching programme clashed with mine. The Experimental teacher had paid special attention to the development of five moral values, namely, respect for others, collaboration, participation, civic and social concern, and self-regulation. The reasons for choosing these five values in this study were explained in Chapter Seven. The results and findings of the above questions are analyzed in the following paragraphs.

8.2 THE RESEACH QUESTIONS

Under the broad question of effectiveness of action learning in citizenship education, I focused on questions from the classroom teaching survey:

- (1) How far is an action learning approach feasible in teaching and learning of citizenship education in primary schools?
- (2) Is an action learning approach effective in citizenship education from the perspective of knowledge, values and skills?
- (3) Have the students demonstrated any changes in the five identified moral values, namely respect for others, collaboration, participation, civic and social concern, and self-regulation?
- (4) What are the factors contributing to the success of action learning pedagogy in citizenship education?

This chapter focuses on the evaluation of teacher's performance and students' feedback on the implementation of action learning. These were the major sources of data for the investigation of the teacher's impact on the effectiveness of action learning in citizenship education. Changes in students' values are also discussed in this chapter. The sources of investigation were mainly from documentary resources such as video-taped lessons, teacher's teaching log, students' reflection in the activity sheets, classroom observations, and interviews. Some observation lessons in the

second cycle of action research were taped and some were not. It depended on the nature of activity; for example, the air pollution test could not be taped because students were running here and there in different locations of the school building for the setting up of their instruments for air pollution test.

When analyzing the data, I used a cross-sectional indexing system to categorize the data, then produced five major indexing categories, viz. level of participation, teacher's role, teaching competence, teacher's reflection and students' responses and reflections.

8.3 RESULTS OF STUDY

8.3.1 *Feasibility of action learning pedagogy applied in normal teaching curriculum*

Citizenship education is not an independent subject in Hong Kong primary schools; the implementation of citizenship education is cross-curricular. In Hong Kong primary education, General Studies is regarded as the most suitable subject for the implementation of citizenship education. However, due to the congested curriculum, teachers worry that they do not have sufficient time to cover all the topics, and therefore seldom pay special attention to the elements of citizenship education. This worry was also the concern of the four teacher-observers.

After lengthy discussion and planning, the experimental teacher agreed to

emphasize aspects of value learning and tried to maximize the opportunities for group activities. The teaching curriculum for the experimental class in the second action research cycle was similar to other classes but had more emphases on citizenship education. The experimental teacher specifically designed some learning activities for the experimental class in order to enhance their five moral values. For example, in the topic of ‘World Population’, the experimental teacher designed a group discussion activity ‘the ideal city for living’ for the experimental class in order to help identify the problems caused by over-population in cities and to arouse students’ awareness of environmental protection and citizens’ responsibilities. Table 8.1 shows the action learning activities related to citizenship education specifically for the experimental class.

Table 8.1 Action learning activities for the experimental class

Topics	Citizenship education activities	Objectives and learning outcomes
World Population	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> My ideal place for living Competition: Group Discussion 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> To arouse students’ awareness of environmental protection and citizens’ responsibility
Poverty	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Simulation Game: The Somali Farmer (Appendix 8.1) Values Clarification Activity: Studying the photographs of the Somali children (Appendix 8.2) Role Play 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> To enhance students’ empathy on cherish of food through group activity To understand the causes of poverty To clarify students’ concepts of poverty To enhance students’ problem solving skill To enhance students’ collaborative ability
Air pollution – Air Test	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Experiment (Appendix 8.3) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> To investigate the problems of air pollution within school area To list the possible resolutions for air pollution. To enhance collaborative attitude

Upon completion of these topics, the experimental teacher found that inclusion of

citizenship education and the adoption of action learning strategy had not jeopardized the progress of learning.

Apart from the perspective of curriculum planning, the teaching time for General Studies adopting an action learning approach was the same as other classes, with each lesson 35 minutes. In principle, the activities could be conducted in any classes, in any school. There was no special arrangement for the experimental group. We thus regard the adoption of an action learning approach in implementing citizenship education in primary school as feasible.

8.3.2 *The effectiveness of an action learning approach in citizenship education*

During the period of classroom teaching, the experimental group acquired knowledge, various skills and attitudes through learning in General Studies lessons. The experimental teacher had adopted an action learning approach to teach three topics, viz. Population in the World, Poverty and Air Pollution through the General Studies curriculum. As in the first cycle of action research, the effectiveness of an action learning approach is analyzed from three perspectives: knowledge, skills and values in accordance with teacher's reflection.

8.3.2.1 Knowledge

Research results illustrated that the design of learning activities could greatly affect students' participation in learning. These results are displayed in table 8.2.

Table 8.2 The relations of activities designed and students' reactions

No. of observed lesson	Activities	Longest teacher's talk in lesson	Frequency of Teacher's talk	Students' reaction	Level of participation
1	Power-point presentation	14 minutes 42 seconds	1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 18 lazed in chairs 4 talked with neighbours 8 yawned 	low
	Questions & answers	3 minutes	3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 3 used their hands to support their chins 4 lazed in chairs 4 passing messages 	low
2	Group discussion	3 minutes	1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 4 played with their pencil boxes 	middle
	Competition	1.5 minutes	3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 6 nodded their heads many laughed clapped hands 	high
3	IT game (Individual game)	2.28 minutes (briefing)	1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 3 used their hands to support their chins 	middle
4	Group Discussion	1.15 minutes	2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> participated 	High
5	Simulation game	5 minutes (Teacher summarized the points learned from game)	1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Majority of the class were attentive 4 students nodded their heads 3 looked around 	High participation in game but low in teacher's narration
6	Values clarification	1.15 minutes	2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Active response from students Empathetic 	high
7	Role Play Dramatization	1.30 minutes	1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Happy and involved Able to present the consequences of wasteful of food 	high
8	Follow-up discussion of drama	2.10 minutes (round up discussion)	1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Attentive Involved Able to give reasonable comments on other groups' performance 	high

Table 8.2 shows that students showed their bored attitude when the teacher talked for nearly fifteen minutes. They were inattentive when teacher talked for more than

2.28 minutes. The Table data also suggests that students liked to learn under a competitive atmosphere. In sum, the research shows that the longer the teacher talked, the greater degree of students' inattentiveness. From another perspective, action learning and participatory approach encouraged students' interest in learning.

Both the experimental group and the experimental teacher showed improvement in teaching and learning during the period of classroom teaching. The following analyses were presented in accordance with the topics of lessons.

i) Population in the World

In the interviews, when the experimental teacher was asked whether she had achieved the teaching objectives of the ten lessons observed, her answers were positive. Except for the first two lessons, she was satisfied with her own and the students' performance. In general, students were active in answering questions compared with the lessons not adopting an action research strategy. She said that students were attentive, able to express their ideas and opinions. She described the experimental group demonstrating deep thinking in these lessons particularly in lessons on 'Poverty'. Among all the lessons, the most impressive lessons were the simulation game and the role play dramatization on poverty. In this lesson, students showed they enjoyed the lesson very much. They could give the factors leading to poverty and could propose appropriate solutions to the problems.

The reactions from students in the first observed lesson and the latter lessons were different. In order to let the experimental teacher demonstrate her understanding of action learning approach, with her consent, the experimental teacher planned the first observation lesson herself. At first, I had reservation about letting the experimental teacher plan the lessons alone as it would increase her workload and cause pressure. However, as explained in chapter seven, one of the reasons that the experimental teacher agreed to take part in this research study was that she could use the teaching materials in her part-time degree study. In other words, the evidence of incorporating the action learning approach in her teaching was used as her course work.

The outcome of the first observation lesson was far from the requirements of action learning that it should be child-centred, participatory and within small group learning. The lesson was didactic and teacher-centred; students did not have many opportunities to participate. The teacher mainly used power point to present the teaching contents and asked questions between teaching points. The longest period of teacher talk was nearly fifteen minutes. The only opportunity for students to participate was to observe the maps and graphs showing population distribution in the world. Students showed that they were bored; 18 students lounged on their desks after 13 minutes teaching, some students talked with their neighbours. and two played

with their pencil boxes. After 25 minutes, 8 students were yawning, 4 students were using small bits of paper to pass messages. Some students talked with their neighbours, some played with papers. The experimental teacher showed her anxiety as she frequently stared at the corner where I sat. Her body language told me that she was defensive because she crossed her arms nearly for the whole lesson.

After this lesson, I interviewed six students; they said they felt bored but this was common in other lessons. Despite the unattractive teaching and learning, students repeated what they had learnt in that lesson. The experimental teacher explained in her reflection report and in the interview that she was very nervous. She also felt uncomfortable in front of the camera. She indicated in her log that she knew she was not teaching in accordance with the principles and requirements of action learning pedagogy.

The experimental teacher demonstrated improvement in the subsequent observations, so did the students. She used group discussion for ‘my ideal place for living’ and competition when teaching population distribution, environmental protection and conservation. Students remarked that they liked the idea of competition very much. They were also able to give sound and reasonable opinions in the lesson. The teacher felt satisfied with her own and students’ performance. She wrote in her reflection report, *‘In order to arouse students’ interest in learning, I*

added a competitive element in the usual format of discussion. Students had to compete with other classmates by giving as many points as possible. The group which gave more valid points would have higher score.' In comparison with the previous reactions of students, the experimental teacher said that students thought deeply in this activity because their points were well supported with reasons and clear explanation. There was a close relation between activities designed and students' reactions. The longer the teacher talked, the fewer students participated and they became inattentive. Table 8.2 summarizes the relation between activities designed and students' reactions.

ii) Poverty

The experimental teacher used a variety of group activities (refer to table 8.1) which received very positive feedback from students. These activities aroused students' interest in learning and thinking, and at the same time enhanced their learning skills. The activities the experimental teacher used were a simulation game (Appendix 8.1), values clarification activity—using the five senses to study photographs (Appendix 8.2), and role play dramatization. The design of these activities followed the requirements and principles of an action learning approach, thus, the teacher's talk was kept within a reasonable length, and students had opportunities to participate and investigate the answers through activities.

The experimental group particularly liked the simulation game: The Somali Farmer (Appendix 8.1). I interviewed 6 students after the lesson. All of them agreed that the game provoked them to think about the causes and solutions of scarcity of food and solutions. One student said that she had never thought starvation could be fatal. She said, *'it was the first time I realize the importance of food distribution in a family. In the game, my family had never had enough food. If we ate too much, we would have no food left, so eventually starve and die.'* Another student said that the game helped him have a deeper understanding of the poverty of the Somali. In the game, he learned that the Somali farmers had to pay heavy taxes to the government but received very little assistance in return from the government. Furthermore, population was one of the factors leading to starvation and shortage of food. Another student pointed out that he had learned that famine was destructive and the importance of environmental protection in poverty stricken areas. Some students remarked that they had never experienced having to calculate how much food they could eat, how much they should store. In reality, they did not need to worry whether they would have enough food or not. All the interviewees agreed that they preferred learning through the simulation game than learning from text. Nine students (26%) wrote in their reflection reports about the ways to handle the left-overs after meals. Some suggested giving away the extra food to the needy, some said that

they should finish all the food in every meal, and one suggested not eating buffet meals.

100% of the experimental group indicated in their reflection reports that they had learned about factors leading to poverty in Somali. They could list the causes of poverty and starvation, and could suggest appropriate solutions. The experimental teacher shared the joy of learning with her students. She wrote the following in her log, *'I found that students were very active in giving their answers in discussion on the causes of poverty in Somali. They gave many more reasons than I expected. The atmosphere in this lesson was so good that I had never experienced it before. I could see students enjoyed the game very much. The most important was pupils could learn more than from textbook through this activity. This outcome changed my conception that activity would jeopardize the progress of teaching and would cause disciplinary problem.'*

Another activity about the learning of poverty was a value clarification activity which required students to use their five senses: seeing, tasting, touching, smelling and hearing to study the photographs of the Somali people. This, too, received extremely positive feedback from students. When I first introduced the idea to her the experimental teacher did not believe that this activity was feasible for primary students. She doubted very much that students could have any reactions to and

feelings about the hard life of Somali people by studying the photographs. Nevertheless, students' reflection reports illustrated that they could really use their five senses to feel the lives of Somalia. One student wrote, *'I could see the people in the picture are skinny, starving, sick and poor. I could smell their odour; I tasted bitter food which I would not and could not eat in Hong Kong. I touched dirty things and could hear hunger. The people living in Somali are facing starvation but I have sufficient food in Hong Kong. I feel very sorry and I think I should give assistance to these people.'* Another student wrote that he should appreciate what he had when he saw the poor and undesirable living environment of the Somali. Another student showed his empathy in his report: *'I can see the children sitting on the ground, waiting for food. I can smell stink food and I taste bitterness. When I touch the body of a child, he is so bony and weak. He looks very sick. I can hear him crying for food. He is very very very poor! He has little food to survive and to live on since he was born.'*

Thirty-five students attended the lesson. Two students were absent. Out of these thirty-five students, twenty-three (65%) indicated in their reflection reports that they could empathize with starvation. Among these twenty-three students, twelve were boys and eleven were girls. There was no gender difference in showing sympathy with the Somali children. Twenty-two students stated in their reports that

they were lucky to have an affluent living standard, so they must help the Somali people. Seven students indicated that they would treasure food in future. It is interesting to note that all these seven students were from the twenty-two students who stated that they were lucky and fortunate to live in Hong Kong. Among these seven students, two were boys and five were girls. Four boys showed their sympathy through the expression that they wished to help the Somali children to escape from starvation. The following table summarizes the learning outcomes of value clarification activity.

Table 8.3 Learning outcomes of value clarification activity (from students’ reports)

Learning outcomes	No. of students (n=35)	Gender	
		Male	Female
Seeing and feeling starvation	23 (65%)	12	11
Feeling lucky and fortunate to live in Hong Kong	22 (63%)	10	12
Would treasure food in future	7 (20%)	2	5
Would help the Somali	6 (17%)	4	2

In order to enhance students’ understanding of the consequences of waste of food, the experimental teacher planned a dramatization activity in learning about poverty. The experimental teacher asked students to evaluate their performance at the end of the lessons. Students were able to transmit the messages of cherishing food through dramatization. In the interviews, some students explained that they exchanged opinions and information about poverty through drama and creativity. One student said that it was good to have drama so that they could move around and did not need

to remain sitting in their seats for the whole lesson. In the interviews with six students, all of them remarked that the arrangement for assessing other groups' performance was good. They felt their classmates were fair and just when giving the scores on the drama performance. The experimental teacher also showed her satisfaction with students' performance. She wrote in her log, *'Never under-estimate your students! You could not imagine that they were so creative and so serious in their work. This was the first time I asked my students to be the judges of the drama plays. Before, I thought that they would be biased in assessing others. Usually they give high scores to their good friends and low to those who are not their friends. However, students' performance in this lesson had totally changed my thinking. They could give fair and just judgment. Surely my briefing was useful and helpful.'*

iii) Air pollution

In this topic, the experimental teacher introduced an experiment to the students to test the problem of air pollution in the school's environment. The objectives of the air pollution test were (1) to investigate whether or not the air in the school surrounding area was polluted; (2) to develop students' attitude of care and concern for society; and (3) to enhance students' collaborative attitude. The instruments were simple: some paper boxes and double-sided adhesive tapes or potted paper. Students placed their boxes in different locations such as the balcony, in the school premises for three

days and gave their reports after the test.

The results of the air pollution test were encouraging because 22 out of 35 students (63%) responded that the experiment was successful and meaningful but 13 students (37%) reported that their experiment was unsuccessful and the results of the test were unreliable. The major reason for the unsuccessful results of the experiment was that the short duration of the test (only three days) caused an unreliable result. The children suggested extending the experiment to one month. The other reason was other schoolmates destroyed their boxes so that they could not get any data. Two students reported this experience. Students demonstrated their problem-solving skills by making suggestions. Three students (8.6%) suggested placing more boxes in other areas beyond the school district. One of these three students suggested that the school should announce this experiment in the assembly and remind other students not to touch or damage the boxes. 5 students (14.3%) showed their concern about air pollution and suggested all taxis use unleaded petroleum. The summary of these outcomes is listed in table 8.4.

Table 8.4 Learning outcomes in air pollution experiment

Learning Outcomes \ Level of Performance	No. of students (%) n=35		
	High	Medium	Low
Description of location of test	21(60%)	9(26%)	5(14%)
Explanation of test results	16(46%)	14(40%)	5(14%)
Reflection	30(86%)	4(11.2%)	1(2.8%)

The level of students' performance was assessed by the experimental teacher

according to students' performance in their reflective reports. If students could give detailed, clear and reasonable descriptions of the locations, and could explain the results of the test, then she graded them as high performance. Those students who could not give detailed explanation of the test, were graded as low.

8.3.2.2 Skills

The special features of an action learning strategy are the maximization of collaborative abilities among students through group activities and the opportunities for participation. Thus, students had adequate opportunities in developing collaborative skills and participation skills. For example, students learned how to cooperate with other classmates in the process of preparation and performance in the dramatization activity. They wrote the scripts together, rehearsed during breaks and free time. However, not all the groups demonstrated good collaboration. As reported by some students in the interviews, their team members did not show up for the rehearsals. But some students were satisfied with their performance. A girl said that the dramatization activity provided opportunities for her and her team to work together. Observation data and the teacher's reflection report illustrated that there was connection between opportunities for the enhancement of collaboration abilities and the performance level. Furthermore, it was found that the more group activities were provided, the higher the level of collaborative skills. In the

interviews with six representatives from each group at the end of the second cycle of action learning research, four representatives agreed that the relationships between members had improved. They also said that they preferred to work in a group rather than work individually because they could share their views and learn from each other. One group representative complained that his members did not cooperate with each other. One said that he could not see any changes in collaboration. In students' evaluation reports on dramatization, 18 students (51%) indicated that the most valuable thing they had learned in that lesson was collaboration. This opinion appeared again in the lessons on Air pollution. Four students specified in their reports that they realized the importance of group work during the air pollution experiment.

Results indicated that in the first and third observation lessons, viz. population of the world, few collaboration opportunities were provided and students' performance in collaboration skills was low. The following table (8.5) displays the opportunities for development of collaboration during the second cycle of action learning.

Table 8.5 Opportunities for the enhancement of collaboration skills

Collaboration Opportunities			High	Medium	Low
Lesson & Activities					
1	World Population	Power-point presentation			√
2	World Population	Group discussion		√	
3	World Population	IT game			√
4	World Population	Debate		√	
5	Poverty	Simulation game	√		
6	Poverty	Values Clarification activity	√		
7	Poverty	Dramatization	√		
8	Poverty	Dramatization	√		
9	Air Pollution	Experiment Test	√		
10	Air Pollution	Experiment Test	√		

N.B. High = activities were conducted in small group with high degree of sharing and discussion;

Medium = activities were conducted in small group with limited space for sharing;

Low = no group activity.

The following table (8.6) displayed the level of performance of students in collaboration skills.

Table 8.6 Collaboration skills in the second cycle of action research

Lesson level Group	1 Power-point Presentation			2 Group Discussion			3 IT Game			4 Group Discussion			5 Simulation Game			6 Values Clarification Activity			7 Drama- tization			8 Air Pollution Test		
	H	M	L	H	M	L	H	M	L	H	M	L	H	M	L	H	M	L	H	M	L	H	M	L
A			√	√					√	√			√			√			√			√		
B			√			√			√			√	√			√			√			√		
C			√		√				√		√		√			√			√			√		
D			√			√			√			√	√			√			√			√		
E			√			√			√		√		√			√			√			√		
F			√		√				√		√		√			√			√			√		

The above table showed that students did not have opportunities to work together in

the first and third lesson, thus, collaboration was low in all groups. Data also

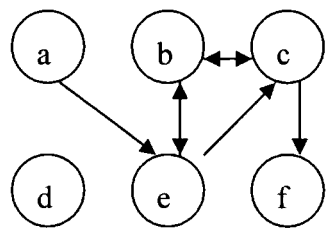
illustrated that Group A demonstrated higher ability in collaboration in all group activities than other groups. Groups C, E and F also showed good improvement in collaborative attitude from lesson five to lesson ten. Group B and D were the groups weak in collaboration compared with other groups. All groups, except Group D, displayed high level of collaboration skills in lesson 5, 7 and 8, of which lesson 5 was a simulation game on 'Poverty', lessons 7 and 8 were dramatization. All these activities were group activities. The results of the above table show that when the teacher provided opportunities for group work, students' collaborative skills improved.

Data in Table 8.6 illustrated that the collaboration skills of Group D improved in the second cycle of action research, i.e. the Classroom Teaching. With reference to table 8.6, Group D students showed low collaboration skills in the first four observation lessons, and their performance improved to middle level from the fifth observation lesson onwards till the end of the observation lessons.

Students' interaction among group members improved in the later stage of classroom teaching. In the beginning stage, though there were six students in one group, their interaction could be divided into two or three small groups; hence, the whole group did not communicate well among themselves. The following diagram shows the interaction of group D students in the second observation lesson on World

Population. The reason for selecting group D as example was because this group was weak in collaboration skills. Data displayed in the diagram were drawn from the video-tape of the second observation lesson.

Diagram 8.7 Interaction of Group D students in the second observation lesson

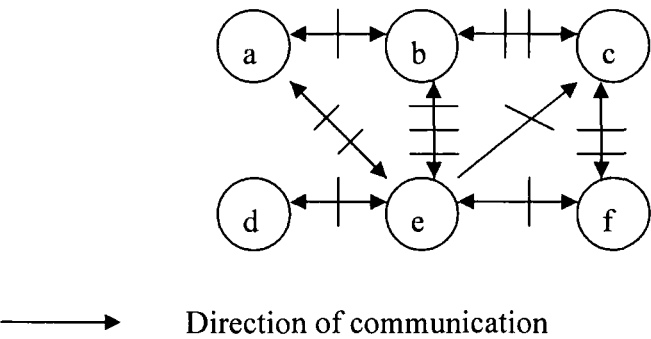


The above diagram shows that student 'e' was the centre of communication. He was the group leader. Student 'd' was not involved during the discussion. He studied his textbook and did not give any opinions. Other group members ignored him as well. Student 'f' was very quiet. He did not contribute his ideas in the discussion. Only student 'c' talked to him. Student 'e', the group leader, had interaction with members, except 'd' and 'f'. This scenario improved in the later observation lessons.

Interaction among members was more active and student d participated in the group activities. All group members were involved in the interaction. The following diagram displays the interaction of Group D in a simulation game that was taped in the fifth observation lesson on Poverty. The arrow shows the direction of communication. If arrows appear on the same line that means there was interaction between two parties. The cross-line on the arrow indicates the number of times that

student interacted with others.

Diagram 8.8 Interaction of Group D in the fifth observation lesson



The above diagram shows that student ‘e’ was still the centre of communication. As ‘e’ was the leader, he communicated with all the members. Student ‘d’ only responded to e in this discussion,. His performance was better than in the second observation lesson shown in diagram 8.7 in which he was aloof. Improvement could be seen in student ‘f’ as well. In diagram 8.7, he did not respond to ‘c’'s talk. The diagram also displays that students ‘b’ and ‘e’ were more active than other members. They had better relationships with group members. Other group members only interacted with the one who sat either next or opposite to him/her. For example, student ‘a’ did not communicate with ‘d’, ‘c’ and ‘f’. Student ‘d’ only communicated with ‘e’. He was still very quiet in comparison with other group members.

The above results explain how the action learning approach helped to enhance students’ collaboration skills and participation skills. Students could build up better

relationships with others.

8.3.3 *Changes in the five identified moral values*

Kolb (1984) believes that students will change their conceptions or opinions through experience. McGill and Beaty (1996) also argue that the power of action learning is learning through experience in order to change rather than simply repeating previous patterns (1996, p.21). In the first cycle of action research, after teaching the experimental group for three months, I identified five moral values, namely respect for others, collaboration, participation, civic and social concern, and self regulation; I anticipated that the experimental group would change their values in these five aspects through action learning approach.

The data illustrated that the experimental group demonstrated improvement in collaboration during the application of an action learning approach (refer to table 8.6) because opportunity for collaboration was provided. Except in the first and the third lessons, the experimental teacher designed group learning activities; thus, students had many opportunities to work together. Table 8.6 illustrated that group A displayed a more consistently collaborative attitude than other groups all through the lessons in the second cycle of action learning. Other groups, except B and D, showed improvement in collaborative attitude. In the lessons on poverty, 6 students (17%) specifically indicated that they had learned how to cooperate with others and

the game, drama, etc provided opportunities for them to understand their team members. This opinion appeared again in the reflection report on the Air Test activity. Four students (11.4%) specified in their reports that this group activity had enhanced their team spirit and their understanding of each other. Five representatives of each group also remarked that they preferred to work in a small group because they could share their experience and opinions with others. Only the group leader of Group D complained that his group did not collaborate in the group work. Similarly, two students from Group D wrote in their reports that their group mates lacked a cooperative attitude.

The experimental teacher also found that students' collaboration ability had improved since the adoption of the action learning approach. She said in the interview in the middle part of the second cycle of action research, *'Some students show better collaboration now. Previously, they quarreled all the times. I had to use much of my teaching time to settle their conflicts. However, still many of them have not shown any improvement.'*

Students displayed their concern for society through the activities of 'values clarification', 'dramatization' and 'air test'. According to the feedback given by the experimental teacher, the experimental group demonstrated improvement in the value of care and concern of civic society when she adopted the action learning approach.

She gave several reasons. First, the provoking learning atmosphere stimulated students' attitude in caring and concern for the society. For example, in the activity of studying the pictures of the African children in which students were asked to use their senses of hearing, seeing, smelling, tasting and touching to feel how the African people might feel (refer to Appendix 8.2), only one student did not have a strong feeling of starvation; the remaining 34 students (97%) stated that they could not believe there was starvation in the world. All of them showed their concern about food distribution. Eight students (22.9%) used different expressions to show that they should give assistance to the people in poverty.

The second reason why students displayed care and civic concern for society through the action learning approach was that students could experience what they had learned. In the report on the 'Air Pollution Test', five students (14%) showed their concern about air pollution in Hong Kong after the experiment. Thirteen students (37%) suggested that the test should be practiced in all the primary schools in Hong Kong in order to arouse awareness of all primary students in this matter. Some stated that they should work together to protect the environment of Hong Kong.

The third reason was that opportunity for reflection was provided. Students were asked to write about they felt and thought about their learning in their reflection reports. One student indicated in his reflection report that the Hong Kong people

should not complain about their declining living standard because in comparison with the Somali and other African people, they had a better living standard.

Change in respect for others was mild in the second cycle of action learning. From the interviews with teacher and from the lesson observation, there was no big change in respect for others, even in students' reflection reports. Only one student indicated in her reflection report that she had learned to listen to others' opinions through the activities on 'poverty'. She mentioned that the attitude of respect for others was important in group activity because people would quarrel easily if they lacked this attitude. In observation, I could see lots of arguments and quarrels, conflicts and confrontation. One student even complained in the interview that there was no respectful attitude in his group. They frequently teased and laughed at one another.

Apart from the five values mentioned above, other values were shown in the second cycle of action learning in the classroom. The value of a sense of belonging was developed in the activities on "Poverty". Sixteen (46%) out of thirty-five students indicated in their reflection reports that they felt fortunate to live in Hong Kong because there was no starvation. They also mentioned that they were satisfied with their present living conditions and should not waste food. One student exclaimed that, 'The African people had to fight against diseases and famine; still they

were brave and had courage. Conversely, many adolescents in Hong Kong did not have these qualities. They killed themselves when they encountered difficulties such as failure in dictation. What cowardly behaviour!’ Twelve students (34%) showed their empathetic attitude in their reflection reports on “Poverty”. Though a minority, two students indicated in their reports that their self-esteem was enhanced. Eight students (23%) suggested giving their extra food to the African or poor people, donating money and daily necessities, etc.

In the interviews with six students after the simulation game on ‘The Somali Farmer’, all of them said that they learned about the difficult living environment in Somalia and shared the feeling of the Somali that they had to survive in order to fight against starvation all through their lives. Two students said that they had never understood that people had to calculate how much food they could eat every month. In their lives, they did not need to worry whether they could have enough food or not. Conversely, their parents always worried that they did not eat enough. One student remarked that the simulation game provoked his thinking on the matter of food distribution.

Students’ empathetic attitude was developed in the activities on “Poverty”. Many students expressed their sad feeling for the difficult life of the Somali farmers and children in their reflection reports. One student wrote in her reflection report

that she wished to cry when she saw the poor living of the Somali children when using her five senses to study the pictures of the African children.

In sum, among the five identified moral values, many students demonstrated changes in collaboration and participation. Some students showed their respect for others, and indicated in their reflection reports that they felt care and concern for the society. But the teacher did not think these changes in values were not significant. According to the experimental teacher, she did not see any changes in self-regulation, either. However, some students, though not the majority of the experimental group, showed that they had developed some positive values throughout the second stage of action learning. These positive values were their attitudes towards cherishing food, consideration, sense of belonging, self-esteem and their empathetic attitude towards the African people.

8.3.4 *Factors contributing to the success of action learning pedagogy in citizenship education*

The fun, the knowledge, skills, and the positive values students developed in the second cycle of action learning research signified that action learning approach could be effective in citizenship education. Several factors were identified as important for contributing to the success of action learning pedagogy. First, the role of the teacher as facilitator in action learning: the experimental teacher specified in her reflection

report that the idea of a teacher as facilitator was a new concept to her. This practice was time consuming so she worried that she might not be able to cover her teaching syllabus if she adopted the facilitator role in her teaching. She also did not believe in the importance of a facilitator in learning until she was able to compare her teaching using an instructor role at the beginning with the facilitator role in the later stages of action learning pedagogy by viewing the taped lessons. By comparing students' reactions, and the interaction between teacher and students in the first observation lesson which was still didactic and did not follow the requirements of action learning approach, and the reactions in the later lessons, she began to realize that a facilitator role was a crucial factor in facilitating students' learning. The experimental teacher revealed in her log that she was very nervous in the first observation lesson because she could not think of any 'good' learning activity that could be considered as action learning. In the first observation lesson, she tended to proceed to another point once she heard a student giving her the expected answer. She did not allow students to express their opinions or ideas on the same question. She was aware that students had too little chance to participate in learning. As a result, in the later stage, she began to pose some open-ended questions and let students talk more. For example, in the lessons on "Poverty", she facilitated students in thinking about the living conditions in Somali. By doing so, students' empathetic attitude was developed.

The experimental teacher did not reject students' answers though some answers were irrelevant. This accepting attitude enhanced students' confidence to express their feelings.

After two months practicing the action learning pedagogy, the experimental teacher wrote her reflection on the lesson of 'poverty' as this: *'I did not talk all through the lesson. I let the students express their feelings and opinions... They were very active in the follow-up discussion. This scenario was not common in my previous teaching.'* The experimental teacher admitted that the facilitator role helped a lot in motivating students' thinking and created an active and positive learning atmosphere.

To sum up, the experimental teacher had changed her role from the traditional instructor role to a facilitator role. In the beginning stage, she talked for nearly the whole lesson. In the later stage, she was able to guide students to talk and to think. Though she gave lengthy explanations sometimes, she still managed to allow students to express their opinions. Her change in role was performed gradually and progressively.

The second factor that contributed to the success of action learning pedagogy in citizenship education was the emphasis on values development in the curriculum design. As citizenship education is not an independent subject in Hong Kong

primary schools, the implementation of citizenship education is cross-curricular. This implies the low status for citizenship education. Teachers seldom pay attention to citizenship education in their subject teaching. This means that if teachers do not pay special attention to the curriculum design for citizenship education, this component can be omitted totally. As mentioned in the previous paragraphs, several moral values were developed in this stage of action research in classroom. According to the experimental teacher's teaching log and reflection reports, she found that the moral values and attitudes developed in the experimental group such as feeling fortunate, empathy, cherishing food, sense of belonging did not exist in other classes that she taught. This showed that the special curriculum designed for the experimental group helped enhance students' moral values.

The foundation in planning an effective citizenship education curriculum in this research was the design of meaningful activities. The experimental teacher used a variety of action learning activities, for example, the simulation game, values clarification activities, dramatization, air pollution test, etc. These activities benefited students' in their development of knowledge, values and various kinds of skills such as collaboration skills, critical thinking skills, etc. For example, in the interviews with the experimental teacher, she pointed out that students could think deeply through action learning activities. She further remarked that students had not

shown this strength in her previous teaching. Her judgment on deep thinking came from students' behaviours in lessons and from students' reflection reports. Students also said that they enjoyed the debate very much and hoped to have this kind of activity again in future because they felt energetic and happy.

The other factor that contributed to the success of action learning pedagogy was the opportunities for students' participation. The experimental teacher had designed many group activities in this cycle of action research. Through participation, students were able to work together with their members, to share their opinions; this enhanced their collaborative attitude, and provided an opportunity to practise civic behaviour such as respect for others. Battistoni opined (1985) that "group learning enhanced students' interest in learning and citizenship education"(p.13). In addition, active participation in learning activities provided a training ground for active citizenship; as advocated by Wilkins (2000), "citizenship clearly depends on active participation".

Another factor that contributed to the success of action learning was the opportunity for reflection. Both the experimental teacher and students were asked to write their reflection reports after each lesson. They were interviewed about their opinions of the action learning pedagogy as well. Through reflection, both teacher and students were able to express their opinions on, and to think about teaching and

learning through an action learning approach. Reflection is an important process in learning. According to McGill and Beaty (1996) “we can learn about the world and about ourselves through reflection on post action. We can construct our future action from our reflections on our learning” (p.30). Students reflected in their reports that they realized the importance of working cooperatively and collaboratively with their classmates through group tasks such as debate, dramatization, simulation game and the air pollution test. The requirement of reflection made students think about what happened in each lesson, why that was, how they felt and what could be done, etc. Illustrations in her teaching log and reflection reports showed that the teacher felt she had made a lot of progress in the design of learning activities and teaching competence. Without reflection reports, neither the experimental teacher nor the experimental group would have been so aware of these changes and positive development.

8.4 CONCLUSION

The aims of the second cycle of action research were to investigate the feasibility and the effectiveness of the action learning approach; whether the experimental group had demonstrated any changes in the five identified moral values; and the factors that contributed to the success of action learning pedagogy. Research results showed that

action learning was feasible in primary schools and could enhance students' citizenship knowledge, skills and values through various kinds of action learning activities. Among the five identified values, data showed that students displayed significant change in collaboration and participation in their classroom behaviour and their reflection reports. Concerning the other three values, viz. respect for others, civic and social concern and self-regulation, these changes were not very obvious. Perhaps the opportunities for the development of these values were inadequate. Furthermore, the learning environment, i.e. classroom has many rules and regulations, and can be seen as another reason for the constraint on development of these values. Concerning the value of civic and social concern, though the change was not outstanding, students in fact had made a big leap in this respect. Before the implementation of action learning approach, students seldom cared about the society. During the learning on "Poverty", many students had shown their care and concern about social needs and strategies for offering assistance. Apart from the effectiveness of learning outcomes, another value that the action learning approach had brought about was the improvement in teaching competence of the experimental teacher. The experimental teacher had demonstrated her advance in teaching competence in the research period. She had changed her role from an instructor to a facilitator. Evidence showed that her change of role facilitated learning. According

to the experimental teacher, students displayed higher order thinking and reflective abilities when she adopted the facilitator role in her teaching. The success of the action learning pedagogy was grounded on the special attention to the design of citizenship education curriculum, the opportunities for students to participate and the opportunities for both the experimental teacher and students to reflect on what they had learned.

As explained in chapter four, service learning is also regarded as action learning. In order to collect a more complete set of research data on the effectiveness of action learning, a service learning project was devised and implemented subsequent to the second cycle of action learning research. The results of service learning are discussed in the following chapters and constituted the third cycle of action research.

CHAPTER NINE

EVALUATION OF THE PROJECT (II)

THE THIRD CYCLE: QUESTIONNAIRE RESULTS

9.1 INTRODUCTION

On completion of the second action learning research cycle, the third cycle started with the questionnaire survey. The rationale for including the questionnaire survey in this research project was spelled out in Chapter Five p.35 and p.36 and in Chapter Seven p.28 and p.29.

As mentioned in Chapter Five, the objectives of the questionnaire survey were to collect data on the five moral values before and after the implementation of service learning and to find out whether the experimental group demonstrated any changes in these five selected moral values after the service learning project. The questionnaire was divided into two parts: part I was composed of 30 questions, each describing a scenario related to the five selected moral values; part II was composed of 10 moral values which were presented in phrases, not in complete sentences, for example 'filial to parents', 'respecting teachers'. Data collected through this questionnaire survey served as supplementary information to the third cycle of action learning research which was a service learning project. The same questionnaire was given to the experimental group before and after the implementation of the service learning

project.

This chapter discusses (i) how the questionnaire was constructed; (ii) how the surveys were conducted in this project, and (iii) the pretest and posttest results of the surveys. In addition to the qualitative data (such as the reflection reports written by the experimental group, the interviews with teachers, students and parents, the video tapes of service), the quantitative data from the pretest and posttest questionnaire survey helped to show whether the service learning project had had an effect on the five identified moral values of the experimental group. The results of the questionnaire are reported in this chapter, and the more descriptive qualitative evaluation in chapter ten.

9.2 HOW THE QUESTIONNAIRE WAS CONSTRUCTED

9.2.1 *Objectives of conducting the pretest and posttest questionnaire surveys*

The objectives of conducting pretest and posttest questionnaire surveys were:

- 1 to collect data on the five civic and moral values, namely, respect for others, collaboration, self-regulation, civic and social concern, and participation of the experimental group before and after the implementation of the project;
- 2 to investigate whether or not there were changes in these five civic and moral values after the implementation of the service learning project;

3 to find out whether the experimental group showed any changes in their perceptions of good citizenship before and after the service learning project.

9.2.2 *The design of the questionnaire*

The questionnaire used in this cycle of action learning research was constructed by the author. A pilot test was arranged for a class of primary six students in a primary school with pupils of similar background to the experimental school in January 2002. The revised questionnaire was delivered to the experimental group in early April 2002 before the implementation of the service learning project, and upon the completion of project, the same questionnaire was given to the same group in mid-July 2002.

This questionnaire consisted of two parts. The first contained thirty items; each described a scenario of five moral behaviours, namely (1) civic and social concern, (2) respect for others, (3) participation, (4) collaboration, and (5) self-regulation. I made reference to the textbooks of General Studies, *the Curriculum Guide of General Studies for primary schools* (CDC, 2002b) and the *Learning to Learn –The Way Forward in Curriculum Development* (CDC, 2001), and the students' handbook of the experimental school when I designed the scenarios relating to the five moral values.

The second part contained ten moral values. These ten moral values were selected from the core and sustaining moral values indicated in Curriculum Development Council (1996) *Civic Education Guidelines for Schools*, the school

regulations of the experimental school, and the results of the perceptions of good citizenship of primary school children in research by Yip (1998). Both parts used a 4-point Likert scale. All these items were about the five civic and moral values, namely, participation, respect for others, collaboration, self-regulation and civic and social concern. In part I, there were eight items on respect for others, five on collaboration, six items on self-regulation, five items on civic and social concern, and six items on participation. All the items concerning these five perspectives were arranged sporadically in order to avoid stereotyped answers. Part II contained 10 items related to the perception of good citizenship. The rationale for inquiring into these five aspects is explained in the following paragraphs.

9.2.3 *The rationale for the questionnaire items*

The first point I had to consider when constructing the questionnaire items was that the items should enable me to answer the research questions stipulated in Chapter 5. Wiersma (1991) points out that questionnaire items must be directly related to the research problem, questions or hypotheses; and ambiguity such as vague words, terms, and jargon, etc. should be avoided (p.173-174). One of my research questions was to find out whether the action learning approach in citizenship education had brought about any changes in pupils' values.

Given that this was a participatory project, the focus was on the feasibility and

effectiveness of pupils' participation in citizenship education. In this connection, items about participation became the principle focus of the questionnaire, asking about respondents' perception of participation in both school and community activities.

Respondents were given opportunities to work collaboratively with their classmates and to apply their interpersonal skills, for example, to demonstrate their respectful attitudes towards others. The aim of the project was that in interaction with others, students would learn to behave and control themselves. They would learn that they could not do as they wished, and had to obey some rules and regulations. Therefore, they would learn to regulate themselves. Through participation in the project, students would have the opportunities to make contact with the real world, with opportunities to understand the needs of other people in society. They would also have chances to study some issues related to their daily life. As a result, their attitudes towards civic and social concern could be developed. For example, in the service learning project, each group had to work collaboratively through group work. During the planning stage, inevitably they would have different opinions. At first, students were reluctant to accept others' opinions. Gradually, they would find that this uncooperative attitude would jeopardize their work. They would begin to learn how to accept others' opinions and to compromise. Respect for others would thus develop. Besides, they would also learn to control themselves. In other words, by working collaboratively with each other, there would be space to develop their self-regulation on one hand, at the same time, their tolerance and acceptance abilities would be enhanced. As the theme of the service learning project concerned 'environmental protection', students would have to design the

activity or performance related to the environment for the handicapped children. In this connection, their concern about the society and environment would be generated. Therefore, these four values, viz., respect for others, collaboration, self-regulation and civic and social concern are inter-connected. They could be developed and enhanced through active participation and reflection. The inter-relationships between these values are shown in the following Diagram 9.1.

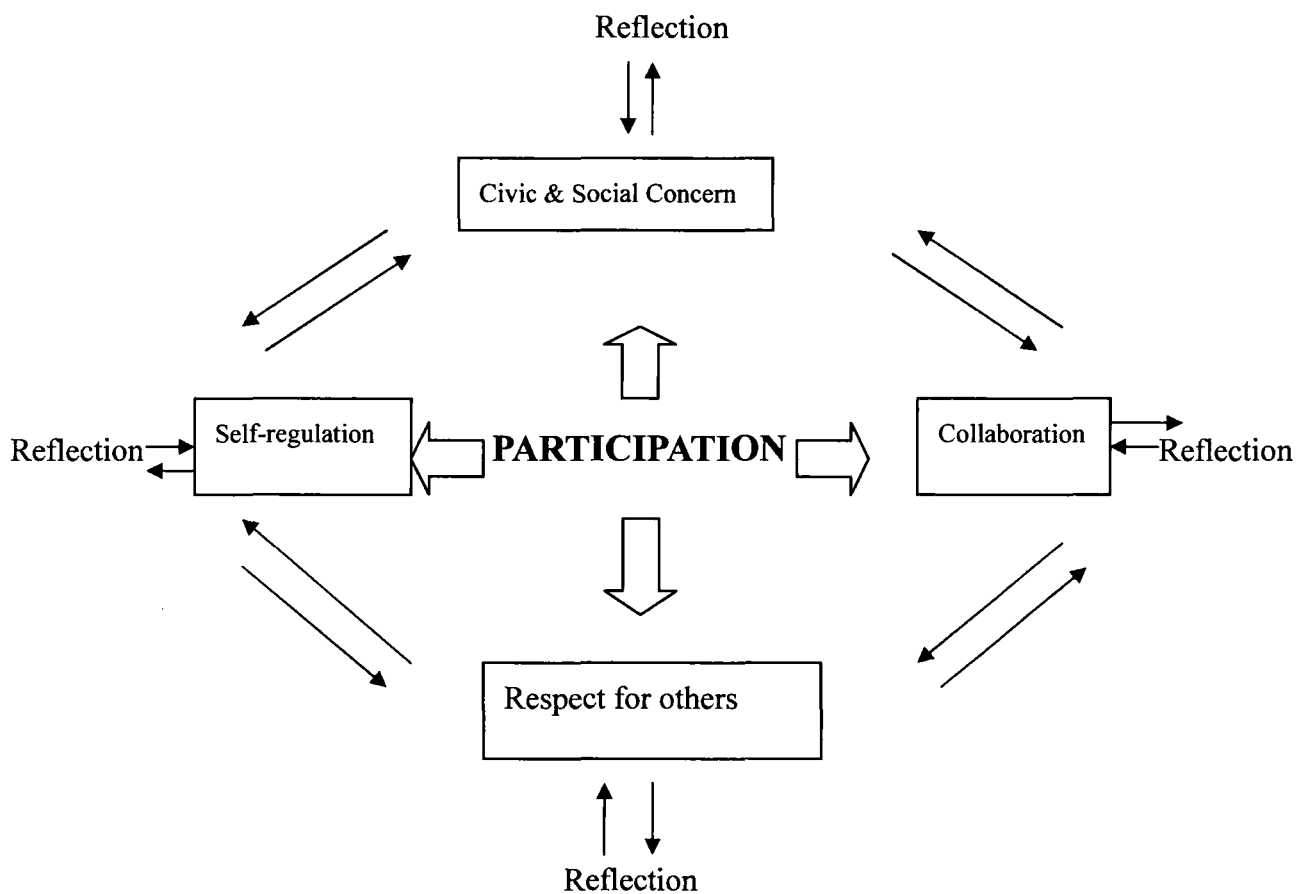


Diagram 9.1: The inter-relationships between participation and moral values

However, why did I need to use the questionnaire survey to inquire whether there were changes in the values of the experimental group in regard to respect for others, collaboration, civic and social concern, self-regulation? Why are these five values important in citizenship education? The rationale was based on the following:

1. From my experience in teaching the experimental group for three months in 2001, and the observations in demonstration lessons for another three months in 2002, I found that some students in the experimental group refused to work with others. They insisted that others follow their ideas. Some of them could not regulate themselves particularly when no teacher was present. Also, students' attitude and verbal communication did not show appropriate respect for others. This can be explained by the change of family structure in Hong Kong in recent decades. Many Hong Kong families now have only one or two children; this is unlike the 1940s to 1960s, when many generations lived together in an extended family system, and children learned how to live with other people. Thus, their cooperative and collaborative abilities were higher. Today, the family system has changed from an extended family to a nuclear family. At home, children are sometimes the masters in the family. As a result, schools have become the major places for children to learn how to work with others. In addition, lack of civic and social concern attitude is common in many of the primary schools as teachers focus on curriculum content, thus attitudes of civic and social concern are not developed well in primary schools.

When designing the curriculum for citizenship education, the aspects of the five moral values were given special attention. Analysis of the pretest and posttest

responses from the experimental group aimed to show whether action learning pedagogy would enhance these skills and attitudes.

2. It was argued in chapter two p.47 to p.48 that good citizens should show respect for others, concern and care for their society, be able to work collaboratively with others, participate actively in social, civic and political strands, and be able to control themselves.
3. It is stipulated in the Hong Kong *Civic Education Guidelines for Schools* (CDC, 1996) that citizenship education should be learner-centred and participatory. Thus, these five values were based on the core concepts of this major civic education document in Hong Kong. The result from the questionnaire, therefore aim to show the wider impact of the action learning citizenship education programme in a Hong Kong primary schools.
4. As discussed in Chapter Two, the aloof and apathetic attitude of Hong Kong citizens jeopardizes the development of citizenship education in Hong Kong. As Lee (2001c) points out, Hong Kong citizens do not mind who rules the place as long as they can live their lives without interference. Lau (1981) also argues that Hong Kong citizens possess the concept of 'utilitarianistic familism' and this results in an apathetic attitude to Hong Kong socially and politically. To change this scenario, an effective implementation of pedagogy in citizenship education

has a part to play. The results of the questionnaire survey became the data for evaluating the effectiveness of action learning in citizenship education.

As we need to convince the public that active participation in citizenship education will produce quality citizens, the whole research project adopted an action learning approach. Furthermore, Hong Kong is a cosmopolitan city. We come across different cultures in our daily lives. In this regard, preparing young citizens to show acceptance, collaboration, and respect for others is an urgent need. Thus, it was hoped that the results of the pre and post implementation questionnaire surveys might help to convince teachers in other schools to adopt the action learning pedagogy in the implementation of citizenship education, and would serve as an indicator of the future development of citizenship education in Hong Kong primary schools.

9.3 RESULTS OF QUESTIONNAIRE SURVEY

There was discrepancy in the number of respondents between the pre-test and post-test questionnaire survey. The pretest questionnaire was completed by 34 students, in early April 2002, just before the implementation of the service learning project. The post-test survey took place on the last day of the service learning project which was in mid-July 2003; nineteen students did not turn up as that day

clashed with their new secondary schools' registration. Statistically, this discrepancy does not compromise the result of the pre-test and post-test survey. The response rate was 100%. The questionnaire was a self-constructed four-point Likert scale questionnaire ranging from "frequently" to "never". Thus the lower the mean, the higher the frequency of the behaviour in question. The T-test was used to test for significant differences between the means of the pre-test and post-test survey. Given that the sample size was too small, principal component analysis was not possible.

The p-values on the t test of the pre-test and post-test surveys revealed significant differences in moral values. There were only five items in which the p-value was smaller than 0.05. To show the importance of the statistically significant difference between pre-test and post-test, I also used Cohen's (1998) effect size. As explained by Coe (2002), "Effect size is simply a way of quantifying the size of the difference between two groups... by placing the emphasis on the most important aspect of an intervention – the size of the effect- rather than its statistical significance" (p.6). After calculating the effect size of the two tests, six items showed a large effect size in the distribution of scores, thirteen items showed medium percent and eleven items showed low effect size. Effect size is the average percentile standing of the pre-test participant relative to the average post-test participant. An effect size of 0.0 indicates that the mean of the pre-test is at the 50

percentile of the post-test. An effect size of 0.8 indicates that the mean of the pre-test is at the 79th percentile of the post-test. Thus, Cohen describes effect size ranges from 0.0 to 0.2 as low, 0.21 to 0.5 as medium and 0.51 or above as large.

It was interesting to find that apart from civic and social concern for society, respondents did not show consistent problems in any set of values. They might have given a low rating to one item but displayed no problem in another item in the same set of values. For example, under the value of respect for others, the survey result showed that respondents were reluctant to participate actively and voluntarily in a group project, as the mean of this item was 2.0. In item 12, 13.5% of the respondents revealed that they seldom enjoyed working on a project with their group members; but they gave a higher rating to item 15, where only 5.4% of the respondents indicated that they seldom shared works and duties with their group members. Results were the same in the moral value of collaboration. The respondents gave a low rating to item 18, with 27% and 50% in the pre-test and post-test respectively indicating that they sometimes blamed their group if their work was criticized. However, they gave high rating to another item that they would accept another group member's suggestion if his or hers was better than mine. The detailed results of each moral value are explained in Table 9.2:

9.3.1. Results of Part I Questionnaire Survey

9.3.1.1 Civic and social concern

Table 9.2 Results of Pre and Post Tests on ‘Civic and Social Concern’
(pre-test n =34, post-test n = 15)

Items		Mean	Frequently	Sometimes	Seldom	Never	T-test	P-Value	S.D.
4. I care about environmental change.	Pre-T	2.96	24.4%	45.9%	29.7%	0%	0.619	N.S.	0.75
	Post-T	3.05	30%	45%	25%	0%			
11. I am concerned about the news (happenings) of society.	Pre-T	2.81	16.2%	48.6%	35.2%	0%	0.203	N.S.	0.68
	Post-T	3.05	20%	65%	15%	0%			
23. I care the environmental health of my community.	Pre-T	2.89	24.3%	43.3%	29.7%	2.7%	0.156	N.S.	0.77
	Post-T	3.20	35%	50%	15%	0%			
#25. What happens in society is not my concern.	Pre-T	2.81	0%	40.5%	37.8%	21.7%	0.511	N.S.	0.88
	Post-T	2.65	10%	45%	15%	30%			
29. I enjoy serving the needy.	Pre-T	3.16	37.8%	40.6%	21.6%	0%	0.652	N.S.	0.71
	Post-T	3.25	30%	65%	5%	0%			

* Overall Mean: pre-test = 2.93; post-test = 3.04

Item 25 was the anomaly statement which was not coherent with the rest of the items, input values for this item were therefore coded in a reverse way so that the positive and negative meanings would read the same as other questions.

Results of Pre-test Questionnaire

The highlighted items show mean ratings lower than 3.00. The low overall mean of 2.93 for the category of civic and social concern in pre-test survey shows that students did not see themselves as possessing a high degree of care and concern for society. In item 25, over half (59.5%) of the experimental group “seldom” or “never” regarded what happened in society as their concern. In item 23, over 30% “seldom” or

“never” cared about the environmental health of their community. Similarly in item 4, 29.7% indicated that they “seldom” cared about environmental change. If we view the results from the opposite side, a majority of the experimental group showed that they did feel care and concern about their society. However, the results gave cause for concern that many of the respondents showed little concern about their society. As the respondents were only eleven years old, they would not have had a deep understanding of the society and they may not have been mature enough to care about what happened in society. This may have explained the low rating in this category. The unimaginative and teacher-centred teaching strategy in citizenship education as pointed out by Yip (1998) may have been another factor that contributed to this result. Furthermore, the interviews with teachers and parents showed that they did not expect their children to show care and concern for society. The pre-test survey result implied that there is still space for the development of civic and social concern in citizenship education.

Results of post-test survey

The overall mean of the post-test survey was 3.04, slightly higher than the pre-test. The means of items 4, 11, 23 and 29 were higher than the pre-test. The exception was item 25. The p-value of all the items on civic and social concern failed to reveal significance. However, if we study the percentage changes, they suggest that the

respondents reported feeling more care and concern for society after the implementation of the action learning project, particularly item 11. There was 3.8% and 16.4% increase in the responses for frequently and sometimes concerned about the news (happenings) of society. On the other hand, only 15% of the respondents, in comparison with 35.2% in the pre-test, reported that they were seldom concerned about the news (happenings) in society. Thus there was a decrease of 20.2% in the post-test. Another example was item 23, in total 85% (35% frequently and 50% sometimes) of the respondents indicated in the post-test that they cared about the environmental health of their community, in comparison with the results of pre-test 67.6% (24.3% frequently and 43.3% sometimes).

Though the pre-test and post-test survey results of the moral value of civic and social concern for society did not show significant changes statistically, there was some evidence of change following the action learning project.

9.3.1.2 Respect for others

Results on 'respect for others' are shown in Table 9.3.

Table 9.3 Results on 'Respect for Others' in Pre-test Survey
(pre-test n =34, post-test n = 15)

Items		Mean	Frequently	Some times	Seldom	Never	T-test	p-value	S.D.
1. I care for the feelings of my classmates before my own.	Pre-T	3.14	27%	59.5%	13.5%	0%	0.129	N.S.	0.63
	Post-T	3.40	45%	50.0%	5%	0%			
6. I listen to different opinions of my group members with my full attention.	Pre-T	3.38	40.5%	56.8%	2.7%	0%	0.630	N.S.	0.54
	Post-T	3.45	45%	55%	0%	0%			
7. I give my seat to the elderly or pregnant on public transport.	Pre-T	2.86	24.3%	40.5%	32.4%	2.8%	0.78	N.S.	0.86
	Post-T	2.80	25%	35%	35%	5%			
13. I air my opinions only after my group members have voiced theirs.	Pre-T	3.08	16.2%	75.7%	8.1%	0%	0.457	N.S.	0.56
	Post-T	3.20	35%	50%	15%	0%			
16. I borrow the property of my classmates only with their permission.	Pre-T	3.49	51.4%	45.9%	2.7%	0%	0.820	N.S.	0.58
	Post-T	3.45	50%	45%	5%	0%			
17. I say 'sorry' to my schoolmates if I have done wrong.	Pre-T	3.46	51.4%	43.2%	5.4%	0%	0.232	N.S.	0.58
	Post-T	3.65	65%	35%	0%	0%			
19. I do not laugh at my friends when they have done something wrong.	Pre-T	2.97	16.2%	64.9%	18.9%	0%	0.063	N.S.	0.63
	Post-T	3.30	40%	50%	10%	0%			
21. I do not take the belongings of others without their prior permission.	Pre-T	3.24	37.8%	48.7%	13.5%	0%	0.262	N.S.	0.67
	Post-T	3.45	50%	45%	5%	0%			

*Overall Mean: pre-test = 3.20; post-test = 3.34

Results of Pre-test Questionnaire

The overall mean of 'respect for others' in the pretest was 3.20, the second lowest

after 'civic and social concern'. Results illustrated that respondents did not see themselves as always caring for others' feelings or respecting others. As explained in Chapter Five, a majority of the respondents were brought up in nuclear families. Many of them were the centre of the families and were rather egocentric. This helps to explain why many respondents did not show consideration for others. They appear not to have understood that respecting others was important in this social world. The result of item 7 was quite worrying, 2.8% and 32.4% of the experimental group indicated that they never or seldom gave their seats to the elderly or pregnant on public transport respectively; only 24.3% of the respondents clearly showed that they would do so. 40.5% indicated that they would sometimes give their seats to the needy, but this value was not firm. These data signify that more emphasis on respect for others and consideration is necessary in citizenship education.

In order to find out the consistency in rating different items with the same moral value, the meanings of some items with the same moral value were similar. For example the meaning of item 16 'I borrow the property of my classmates only with their permission' is similar to item 21 'I do not take the belongings of others without their prior permission'. In theory the ratings of these two items should have been similar. The mean of item 16 in the pre-test was 3.49 and 3.24 for item 21 so in comparison, the rating was higher in item 16. Over half (51.4%) of the respondents

firmly reported that they frequently gained permission from their classmates before they borrowed their property and 45.9% replied “sometimes”; only 2.7% opted for “seldom”. The result of item 21 was a bit lower. Only 37.8% claimed that they would not take the belongings of others without their prior permission. The inconsistency between these results could be explained by the following: first, students would seek permission from the owner for borrowing any property because they had a prior intention to borrow them. However, they would just take some very minor things such as stationery that belonged to others without asking permission because they trusted themselves to return those things later. Hence, they may not have thought that permission was important. Furthermore, students are likely to have interpreted the meaning of ‘borrow’ as ‘action of returning property was expected’. As a result, most of the respondents believed they would return the borrowed properties to their classmates after use. In this sense, they believed the “borrowing behaviour” was just for convenience, and was acceptable because they had no intention to keep the property. I witnessed this in the first and second cycles of action research in classroom teaching. Secondly, the inconsistency in the pretest result could be explained by students’ different interpretations of the two statements. A weakness of a questionnaire is that respondents might interpret the questions in different ways.

Results of the post-test survey

The overall mean of respect for others in the post-test 3.34 means that the respondents had quite a high value in this aspect. As explained above, a mean higher than 3.00 was seen as a favourable result. There were no significant changes in value in the pretest and posttest surveys (table 9.3). In general, however, respondents displayed improvement in respect for others in the post-test. For example, in the pretest, 13.5% of the respondents indicated that they seldom cared for the feelings of their classmates, but the result in posttest survey was 5% only. Moreover, 45% of the respondents gave a firm response to this item that they “frequently” cared for the feelings of their classmates in the posttest survey compared with 27% in the pre-test. Though the p-value in the T-test was not significant, the outcomes illustrated by percentage changes were encouraging. This scenario was the same in items 13, 19 and 21. The percentage of ‘frequently’ in these three items increased by 18.8%, 23.8% and 12.2% respectively.

9.3.1.3 Participation

Table 9.4 Results on ‘Participation’ in Pre-test and Post-test Survey
(pre-test n =34, post-test n = 15)

Items		Mean	Frequent ly	Some- times	Seldom	Never	T-test	p- value	S.D.	Effect Size
5. I always contribute my suggestions/ideas in discussions.	Pre-T	3.16	29.7%	59.5%	8.1%	2.7%	0.947	N.S.	0.68	
	Post-T	3.15	25%	65%	10%	0%				
12. I enjoy working on a project with my group members.	Pre-T	3.19	37.9%	45.9%	13.5%	0%	0.037*	p < .05.	0.65	0.72
	Post-T	3.60	60%	40%	0%	0%				
15. I like to share works or duties with my group.	Pre-T	3.35	40.5%	54.1%	5.4%	0%	0.371	N.S.	0.61	
	Post-T	3.50	55%	40%	5%	0%				
26. I expect all members of the group have equal participation.	Pre-T	3.32	40.5%	51.4%	8.1%	0%	0.521	N.S.	0.70	
	Post-T	3.45	65%	15%	20%	0%				
28. I take active participation in group project voluntarily.	Pre-T	3.00	13.5%	73%	13.5%	0%	0.176	N.S.	0.54	
	Post-T	3.20	25%	70%	5%	0%				
30. I am serious about my part in group project.	Pre-T	3.21	29.7%	62.2%	5%	0%	0.605	N.S.	0.57	
	Post-T	3.30	35%	60%	5%	0%				

*Overall Mean: pre-test = 3.21; post-test = 3.37

Results of Pre-test Questionnaire

The overall mean for participation was 3.20. Data shown in Table 9.4 above illustrated that the ratings for participation were consistently quite high. The results of items 28 and 30 showed that some respondents were not active in group projects. We should also notice that only 2.7% of the respondents indicated that they “never” contributed their suggestions/ideas in discussions and 8.1% showed in item 5 that they seldom contributed in discussions. The statistical data were consistent with the

qualitative data which showed that one group of students did not participate actively in the first and second cycles of research.

Results of post-test survey

As with other moral values, the overall mean of 3.37 for participation, was higher than the pre-test survey. The respondents did not show significant change between pre and post test in most of the items. The exception was item 12 'I enjoy working on a project with my group members'. This item is highlighted in Table 9.4. There was a significant change in item 12, where 60% respondents indicated that they frequently enjoyed working on a project with their group members in the posttest survey, an increase of 22.1% on the pre-test. Nevertheless, none of the respondents reported that they did not enjoy working with other group members in the post-test. The ES of this item was 0.72, indicated a large effect.

It is interesting to see the results of item 26. The rating on "frequently" in the post-test was 65%, higher than the pre-test which was 40.5%. In spite of the high rating on 'frequently', 20% of the respondents indicated they 'seldom' expected their group members to have equal participation after the implementation of service learning. The rating increased by 11.9% in comparison with the pre-test. These results included that some groups reported better experience of working with their group members but some did not.

In item 28, though the p-value was greater than 0.05, the posttest ratings were higher than the pretest. Only 5% of the respondents claimed that they seldom actively participated in group project voluntarily. The percentage in the response for “frequently” increased from 13.5% in the pretest survey to 25% in the posttest survey. In sum, the results on the perspective of participation were positive after the implementation of the action learning project.

9.3.1.4 Collaboration

Table 9.5 Results on ‘Collaboration’ in Pre-test and Post-test Survey
(pre-test n =34, post-test n = 15)

Items		Mean	Frequent ly	Some times	Seldom	Never	T-test	p- value	S.D.	Effect Size
2. I am happy to share my opinions/ideas with my group members.	Pre-T	3.29	35.1%	59.5%	5.4%	0%	0.619	N.S.	0.56	
	Post-T	3.50	50%	50%	0%	0%				
8. I support my group members even when their work is criticized by others.	Pre-T	3.35	35.1%	64.9%	0%	0%	0.020*	p <.05	0.45	0.62
	Post-T	3.05	10%	85%	0%	0%				
9. I try hard to think of a solution if my group has encountered difficulty.	Pre-T	3.05	24.3%	59.5%	13.5%	2.7%	0.620	N.S.	0.71	
	Post-T	3.15	30%	55%	15%	0%				
#18. I blame other members of my group if our work is criticized.	Pre-T	2.89	0%	27%	56.8%	16.2%	0.037*	p <.05	0.74	0.73
	Post-T	2.45	10%	50%	25%	15%				
20. I accept another group member’s suggestion if his/hers is better than mine.	Pre-T	3.59	59.5%	40.5%	0%	0%	0.440	N.S.	0.49	
	Post-T	3.70	70%	30%	0%	0%				

*Overall Mean: pre-test = 3.22; post-test = 3.17

Item 18 was the anomaly statement which was not coherent with the rest of the items, input values this item was therefore coded in a reverse way so that the positive and negative meanings would read the same as other questions.

Results of Pre-test Questionnaire

Table 9.5 shows the inconsistency between items in the category of collaboration.

The overall mean of the moral values of collaboration was 3.23 which was seen as quite positive but the mean in item 18 was lower at 2.89. As explained in the footnote of Table 9.5, the options of ‘frequently’ and ‘sometimes’ were negative ratings. 27% of the respondents indicated that they sometimes blamed other members if their work was criticized. This result cohered with my observation that the respondents frequently quarrelled among themselves, blaming each other when errors occurred in their work. However, there was a possibility that the students had misinterpreted this item as it was not well set. Item 18 was the anomaly statement which was not coherent with the rest of the items. Unlike other items, “frequently” in this item means a negative value, while “never” is a positive value. Primary students might not be able to switch their minds when they did the rating. Therefore, this item was coded in a reverse way so that the positive and negative meanings would read the same as other items.

There were 16.2% of the respondents who indicated that they were weak in

collaboration in item 9. They would never or seldom try hard to think of a solution if their groups encountered difficulties. In fact, as explained in section 9.2.3, because of the change in family structure in Hong Kong, many children are dominant in the families. They do not have many chances to work with others. In addition, the traditional teaching approach does not provide adequate opportunities for students to work with others in small groups. These reasons could explain that there was still space for the development of collaboration skills.

Results of the Post-test Questionnaire

Though the overall mean of ‘collaboration’ in the posttest survey was 3.17, it did not show any significant change statistically in comparison with the pretest survey result. However, there was significant change in individual items. For example, there was a significant change in item 8 ‘I support my group members even when their work is criticized by others’ ($p < 0.020$). The effect size of 0.62 was large, indicating that the mean of the pre-test was at the 73 percentile of the post-test. The data illustrated that the support among group members deteriorated after three months collaboration in the service project. Similarly, the posttest result of item 18 showed that members tended to blame their group members if their work was criticized significantly more than in the pretest. ($p < 0.04$). The effect size was 0.73, also indicated significant change. This result was not consistent with the results of observation, interviews and

documentary analysis. Post-test results of other moral values displayed a positive change, but why should these two items have yielded different results? Why did the experimental group become more critical after the project? This could be explained if the experimental group did not have actual experience in handling criticism. In their minds, criticizing others was not a friendly behaviour so they should not criticize their friends. But after experiencing a long period of working together with their group members, they understood constructive criticisms would not harm their relationships. I witnessed some groups debating fiercely during discussion but they also played happily with each other. Their arguments did not harm the harmonious atmosphere.

If we study the data in percentage forms, we can find respondents had higher post-test ratings in collaborating with others. In some aspects, such as item 2, 50% of the respondents showed that they were “frequently” happy to share their opinions/ideas with their group members in the posttest survey, in contrast to 35.1% in the pre-test, suggesting that their acceptance of others was enhanced through the group project. The result of item 20 ‘I accept another group member’s suggestion if his/hers is better than mine’ showed that 70% of the respondents accepted their members’ suggestions “frequently” against only 59.5% in the pretest survey. The results for this set of values were mixed. Some items showed positive change but

some items did not. Perhaps the findings would be consistent if the time difference between the pretest and posttest was longer.

9.3.1.5 Self-regulation

Table 9.6 Results of Pre and Post Tests on 'Self-regulation'
(pre-test n =34, post-test n = 15)

Items		Mean	Frequently	Some- times	Seldom	Never	T-test	p- value	S.D.	Effect Size
3. I queue up to purchase my snack and drinks at the school tuck-shop.	Pre-T	3.65	73%	18.9%	8.1%	0%	0.050*	p <.05.	0.72	0.56
	Post-T	3.25	50%	25%	25%	0%				
10. I keep my belongings tidily at home.	Pre-T	3.08	27%	56.8%%	13.5%	2.7%	0.056	N.S.	0.73	0.52
	Post-T	3.47	57.9%	31.6%	10.5%	0%				
14. I put things back in their original place after use at school.	Pre-T	3.46	54.1%	37.8%	8.1%	0%	0.257	N.S.	0.61	0.46
	Post-T	3.65	65%	35%	0%	0%				
22. I follow the instruction laid down when I use the facilities at school or public parks.	Pre-T	3.43	48.7%	45.9%	5.4%	0%	0.172	N.S.	0.67	0.49
	Post-T	3.65	65%	35%	0%	0%				
24. I turn off the light or air-conditioner if I am the last one to leave the classroom.	Pre-T	3.00	29.8%	48.6%	13.5%	8.1%	0.269	N.S.	0.83	0.27
	Post-T	3.25	35%	55%	10%	0%				
27. I follow school rules in school premises even when no teachers or prefects are nearby.	Pre-T	3.14	24.3%	64.9%	10.8%	0%	0.048*	p <.05.	0.57	0.68
	Post-T	3.45	45%	55%	0%	0%				

*Overall Mean: pre-test = 2.69; post-test = 2.91

Results of Pre-test Questionnaire

The ratings of items related to self-regulation illustrated that the experimental group claimed to be rather self-regulated (Table 9.6). The overall mean of all items under

this category was 3.29. In item 3, 73% of the respondents indicated that they frequently queued up for food at the school tuck-shop. None of the respondents said that they would not queue up. However, only 27% of the respondents reported that they always kept their belongings tidily at home, and 2.7% even indicated they never keep their belongings tidily. This result once again suggested that the experimental group was well protected by families. They relied heavily on their parents or Filipino domestic helpers to tidy up their belongings. For item 24, asking about whether the experimental group would turn off the lights or air conditioner if they were the last one to leave the classroom, only 29.8% responded that they frequently would, and 8.1% said that they would never do it. This result not only suggested that the students were weak in self-regulation, it also implied that they lacked a sense of responsibility as well.

Results of Post-test Questionnaire

In general, the experimental group had higher post-test ratings in self-regulation. The change in item 27 was significant ($p < 0.048$). The significant change was supported by the large effect size of 0.68. The result in this item illustrated that even when there were no teachers or prefects nearby, the respondents claimed that they would still keep the school rules and behave themselves. Item 22 had similar result. More respondents showed that they behaved themselves and followed instructions

laid down when they used the facilities. It was the same in item 14.

Other items also showed that respondents were better behaved after the implementation of the action learning project, such as item 10. There was more than 30% increase over the pretest survey, indicating firmly that they would keep their belongings tidily at home. This result correlated with the results in the interviews with parents. Some parents revealed that their children paid more attention to their own belongings and were more considerate after the implementation of the service learning project.

In sum, the experimental group appeared to see themselves as generally better behaved after the implementation of the service learning project.

9.3.2. Results of Part II of the Questionnaire Survey

Part II of the questionnaire required the respondents to rate the importance of ten values. The rating was on a 4 point scale from 4: most important to 1: least important. These ten items were based on the school rules and regulations of the experimental school, and were selected from the core and sustainable moral values indicated in the conceptual framework of the CDC (1996) *Guidelines on Civic Education in Schools*. Apart from the above mentioned documents, I also referred to the five investigative moral values in this research project, namely, participation, civic and social concern, respect for others, self-regulation and collaboration. As with

part I, the pretest of part II was conducted in April 02 and the posttest was conducted in mid-July 02 after the last service day at the special school for the seriously handicapped children.

The ten values in Part II were: (1) filial to parents, (2) respecting teachers, (3) helping others, (4) obeying law and order, (5) caring and concerned my society, (6) serving the society, (7) studying hard, (8) respecting others' opinions, (9) protecting the environment of the earth and (10) Loving my Country.

Part II showed that the respondents reported significant differences between the pretest and posttest surveys. These items were highlighted in yellow in Table 9.6. Only three items among the ten did not show significant differences between the two surveys. They were 'filial to parents', 'obeying law and order' and 'studying hard'. However, when I ranked these ten items according to the rate of importance, the items of 'filial to parents' and 'studying hard' ranked the first and second respectively. The results suggested that the perception of the importance of 'filial to parents' and 'studying hard' were seen as important in the pretest. This explanation also applies to the item 'obeying law and order' as the mean in the posttest survey was higher than the mean in the pretest survey.

Table 9.7 Results of the pretest and posttest surveys of the ten moral values

Items	Pre/Post Test	Mean	Percentage (%)				t-test	p- value	effect size
			4	3	2	1			
Filial to parents	Pretest	3.71	79.4	11.8	8.8	0	0.10	NS	0.56
	Posttest	4.00	100	0	0	0			
Respecting teachers	Pretest	3.32	41.2	50.0	8.8	0	0.00*	p <.05.	0.96
	Posttest	3.87	86.7	13.3	0	0			
Helping others	Pretest	3.11	26.5	58.8	14.7	0	0.005***	p <.05.	0.92
	Posttest	3.67	66.7	33.3	0	0			
Obeying law and order	Pretest	3.38	44.1	52.9	2.9	0	0.432	NS.	0.22
	Posttest	3.53	53.3	46.7	0	0			
Caring and concerned my society	Pretest	2.85	17.6	50	29.4	0	0.009***	p <.05.	0.77
	Posttest	3.40	46.7	46.7	6.7	0			
Serving the society	Pretest	2.82	17.6	50.0	29.4	2.9	0.006***	p <.05.	0.86
	Posttest	3.47	53.3	40.0	6.7	0			
Studying hard	Pretest	3.62	70.6	20.6	8.8	0	0.091	NS	0.43
	Posttest	3.87	86.7	13.3	0	0			
Respecting others' opinions	Pretest	3.26	35.3	55.9	8.8	0	0.035*	p <.05.	0.46
	Posttest	3.53	53.5	46.7	0	0			
Protecting the environment of the earth	Pretest	2.97	29.4	47.1	14.7	0	0.035*	p <.05.	0.55
	Posttest	3.53	60.0	33.3	6.7	0			
Loving my Country	Pretest	2.41	17.6	23.5	41.2	17.6	0.029*	p <.05.	0.70
	Posttest	3.13	53.3	20.0	13.3	13.3			

* = $p\text{-value} < 0.05$

*** = $p\text{-value} < 0.01$

The results illustrated that there were positive changes in all moral values in the posttest. These changes, in terms of ranking according to the means of each value, are listed in Table 9.8.

Table 9.8 Ranking of the ten moral values in the pretest and posttest

Items	Ranking in Pretest	Ranking in Posttest
Filial to parents	1	1
Studying hard	2	2
Obedying law and order	3	5
Respecting teachers	4	2
Respecting others' opinions	5	5
Helping others	6	4
Protecting the environment of the earth	7	5
Caring and concerned for my society	8	9
Serving the society	9	8
Loving my Country	10	10

Respondents gave high scores to ‘filial to parents’. Filial respect to parents is the traditional value in Chinese families, and its high ranking is thus not surprising. The mean of the posttest was 4.00 which means 100% of the respondents rated filiality as the most important.

The respondents were facing the secondary school placement while filling in this questionnaire, and this explains why they placed such importance on studying hard. Furthermore, the respondents were in the class of high achievers in the research school. Studying was important to all of them. This background may explain why the respondents gave high ratings to ‘studying hard’ in Part II of the questionnaire.

The significant change in the value of ‘respecting teachers’ is worth noting. Before the implementation of the action learning project, this item was ranked fourth of the ten. The mean was 3.32. After the implementation, the mean was 3.87, very close to the highest score, and the rank raised to the second. The large effect size

(0.96) indicated an important difference between the two tests. This change can be explained by the change in the role of teachers. As the role that the teacher played in the service learning project was a facilitator rather than a teacher, the relations between teachers and students were closer; better rapport between teacher and students was thus developed.

The items 'helping others', 'protecting the environment of the earth', 'serving the society', all moved to higher ranks after the implementation of the project, with high ratings. For other items like 'respecting others' opinions', 'loving my Country', though the ranks remained unchanged, the rising overall means showed these values were important in the perceptions of respondents. Two items moved to lower ranks after the implementation of the service learning project. They were 'obeying law and order' and 'caring and concerned for my society'. However, the lower ranking did not mean that respondents downplayed these items. On the contrary, respondents regarded these two items as important because the means were significantly increased.

During the service project, students gained satisfaction from serving the seriously mentally handicapped children, so they gave high rating to the items of 'helping others'. The p-value showed that the change in this value was highly significant, ($p < 0.005$). The large effect size (0.92) confirmed the large difference between the pretest and posttest survey. A similar result occurred in the value of

“serving the society” ($p < 0.006$). The effect size was 0.86, indicated that the mean of the pretest was at the 80 percentile of the posttest.

To conclude, the means of ‘value order’ test in Part II reflect that the respondents had made significant changes in civic and moral values by the end of the implementation of the service learning project.

9.4 DISCUSSION

In general, the overall results of part I did not show any significant changes statistically; however, the percentile data showed that the trend in ratings was positive after the implementation of the action learning project. The non-significant change in statistics can be explained by the respondents’ interpretation of the items and their seriousness when doing the questionnaire. As both the pretest and the posttest used the same instrument, familiarity might have reduced attention to the questions in the posttest survey.

9.4.1 *Weaknesses of the questionnaire*

9.4.1.1 Time gap between the pretest and posttest survey

The major weakness in this project was that the time between the pretest and posttest surveys was too short. There was only three months gap between the two tests. If the pretest survey could have been conducted before the implementation of the second

cycle of research project, and the posttest survey conducted after the service learning project, then there would have been about nine months gap, and the results of the two tests might possibly have shown more significant changes. Furthermore, in the second cycle of the research project, the experimental teacher focused on the five selected moral values when she implemented the action learning strategy in her classroom teaching of citizenship education.

Though the results of Part I did not show many significant change, Table 9.8, suggests slight positive changes in the overall means of the five moral values in the pretest and posttest surveys. Despite this, the p-value of some items such as item 8, 12 and 18 (Table 9.9) were smaller than 0.05 which means the changes were significant. Among these three items, item 8 and 18 were related to collaboration and had negative changes. The posttest survey result illustrated that respondents' overall value on collaboration showed no improvement statistically. These data cohered with the research results in the second cycle of research project.

Table 9.9 shows the means of these five perspectives in the pretest and posttest surveys:

Table 9.9 The overall mean of the five moral values in the pretest and posttest surveys

Perspective	Pretest Survey	Posttest Survey	T-test p-value
Civic & Social Concern	2.93	3.04	0.424
Respect for Others	3.20	3.34	0.184
Participation	3.20	3.37	0.113
Self-regulation	3.29	3.45	0.127
Collaboration	3.23	3.17	0.348

As well as conducting the pretest survey earlier, the timing for the posttest survey should be reconsidered as well. As I was not a frontline teacher, I did not have knowledge of the activities related to secondary school placement, for example, the orientation for secondary one students after the release of placement results. If I could have chance to conduct the questionnaire survey again, I would arrange the posttest result a bit earlier in order to avoid the clash of activities. This would mean that all students would turn up for the posttest survey and would help the validity of research.

Although there was no technical problem in using a t-test in analyzing pre and post tests responses, it is important to emphasize that over 50% of the pre-test students were unavoidably absent from the post-test. This means the results should be treated with cautions. There is no reason to suppose that the absent students would have given different responses to those who were present. Nevertheless, the low response rate in the pre-test must be a matter for some concern.

9.4.1.2 Design of the questionnaire

There were two problems in the design of the questionnaire. First, I used double negatives in items 18 and 25. These should be avoided as far as possible, particularly when the respondents are primary pupils. The double negative meanings would easily mislead respondents and thus affect the validity of research results. The second problem is the omission of some personal particulars of the respondents. This made it impossible, for example, to compare responses of boys and girls. If I were to have opportunity to conduct the same survey again, I would ask respondents to provide information on gender and religion. Then, I could know whether gender and religion were factors that would contribute differences in perception of moral values.

Another limitation of this questionnaire was that each moral value could merely cover some of the scenarios that were selected from textbooks or school regulations which means the results could not fully illustrate students' perception of a particular moral value.

9.4.2 *Strengths of this questionnaire*

The scenarios described in the questionnaire occurred quite frequently in daily life, and thus would help students understand the questions when they filled in the questionnaire. Furthermore, the reading level (in Chinese) was appropriate for

respondents. These points were important in questionnaire design, particularly for primary pupils.

Furthermore, the data provided useful information; for example, several respondents appeared not to see the importance of caring and concern for society, reminding us that more emphasis in this point would be necessary in curriculum design and teaching of citizenship education.

9.4.3 *Implications of the results*

9.4.3.1 The need to develop civic and social concern

The low overall mean and the low ranking in Part I in Part II of the moral value of civic and social concern illustrated that there is room for the development of civic and social concern. As explained in section 9.3.1.1, some teachers and parents did not expect primary children to possess a high degree of civic and social concern for society. In this sense, on one hand, there is a need to develop students' sense of civic and social concern; on the other hand, changing the concepts of teachers and parents is also necessary. However, the respondents showed significant change in the value of 'caring and concerned for my society' in Part II, showing that the respondents recognized this value as important in good citizenship.

9.4.3.2 Enhancement of public virtue is necessary

In general, the respondents claimed to be able to control their own behaviour as the overall mean of 'self-regulation' was quite high in both pretest and posttest. However, the results in the items describing 'respect for others' indicated that enhancement of a sense of social responsibility is desirable. For example, Part I showed that the respondents gave a low rating to item 7 'I give my seat to the elderly or pregnant on public transport' and item 19 'I do not laugh at my friends when they have done something wrong'. The results implied that not all the respondents were considerate. In this sense, there is need to enhance students' sense of social responsibility when implementing citizenship education.

9.5 CONCLUSION

This chapter has outlined the outcomes of the pretest and posttest questionnaire surveys conducted in the experimental school. Analysis of the pre and post test ratings in Part 1 revealed few significant differences. However, the results of Part II were positive and displayed significant changes.

To conclude, the questionnaire survey illustrated how the respondents see themselves in the identified moral values. Results of the survey were not altogether consistent with the research results of the second cycle. For example, the second cycle showed improvement in collaboration but this was not significant in the

questionnaire survey. However, non-significant changes in the values of civic and social responsibility, respect for others and self-regulation in the questionnaire were consistent with the results in the second cycle.

CHAPTER TEN

EVALUATION OF THE PROJECT (III) THE THIRD CYCLE: QUALITATIVE DATA

10.1 INTRODUCTION

As argued in chapter five, community service can be seen as one of the essential experiences that Hong Kong students should obtain in basic education in order to develop their full potential as individuals. It is also argued in chapter seven (Section 7.3.4) that service learning is a channel to fulfill the rationale for active citizenship and whole person development. The advantages of service learning in citizenship education are discussed in chapter four. As planned, when the first two cycles of action learning were finished, a service learning project was subsequently implemented. The third cycle of this study comprised a pre and post service questionnaire survey and a three-month service project in a special school for seriously mentally handicapped children. Because many Hong Kong people are reluctant to work with the mentally handicapped children, this service was on voluntary basis. Parents could choose not to allow their children to join the service project. Out of thirty-seven pupils in the class, two students withdrew; therefore, the number of participants in the service learning project was 35.

The experimental group visited the special school for seriously mentally handicapped children on every Friday afternoon from May 2002 to July 2002. Four

teachers from the experimental school participated in the project as helpers. Their duties were mainly managerial and looking after the experimental group throughout the project. The framework for the service was designed by the special school, however, the experimental group still had autonomy to design some of the activities themselves, for example the programmes for a birthday party and fun fair. Programmes for the service learning project can be found in chapter seven section 7.3.4.

The aims of the service learning project were: to provide opportunities for the experimental group to apply knowledge and skills learned in their own classroom in a real context; to find out whether the experimental group had changed the five attitudes stipulated in the 'Am I a good citizen' questionnaire upon completion of the project; and to investigate the effectiveness of service learning in citizenship education and the factors that contributed to success or failure of the project. In the process of this service project, students learned to work collaboratively with others. They encountered different challenges which, in fact, were intended as valuable experiences for students to enhance their problem-solving ability. The following paragraphs evaluate the values of service learning in citizenship education. In addition, this chapter analyses the factors leading to changes in the experimental group's values after their participation in the service learning project as described in chapter nine.

As service learning is a new strategy promoted by the Government in Hong Kong, in general, many schools have reservations about incorporating it in the school curriculum; thus, this research study may provoke schools to re-consider implementing service learning in teaching.

10.2 OVERALL METHODOLOGY

In line with the design of the action learning study, the third cycle, like the previous cycles, employed an action research methodology. Data collected from study, contained both quantitative and qualitative data.

10.2.1 Research questions

Seven research questions were identified in chapter seven section 7.5.2, viz. the importance of the facilitator's role in action learning, the development of teachers' competence, the effectiveness of action learning pedagogy, the changes in five identified moral values of the experimental group, the benefits of action learning in citizenship education, factors contributing to the success or failure in action learning pedagogy and its implications for the implementation of citizenship education. In order to address these questions, qualitative data were collected through observation, students' reflective journals, and interviews with students, teachers, school principal and parents. I also recorded the process of service learning.

10.2.2 *Methods of data collection*

10.2.2.1 Documents

As pointed out by Elliot (1991), and Reason and Bradbury (2001a), the value of action research is to bring together action and reflection, and theory and practice. In practising the rationale for action learning through a service learning project, the experimental group was requested to keep a reflective journal through out the service period as explained in chapter seven section 7.5.3.3. Because the experimental group was in grade 6, students might not know what to include in their journal. An example of a reflective journal (Appendix 10.1) was therefore distributed to students prior to the service programme. In total, 35 reflective journals were collected. These reflective journals were the main source of data in identifying the changes of attitudes that students showed during the project. Evidence of changes was not only elicited from the reflective journal, but also from the pre and post questionnaire surveys (described in chapter 9), and from the interviews with students, teachers, parents and school principal. Apart from changes in attitudes, the reflective journals also provided useful information about the difficulties encountered and how students resolved them in the project.

All the service activities were video-taped as another source of support data.

10.2.2.2 Observations

In the service learning project, informal observations were conducted under natural conditions, for example in the lessons in which the experimental group were preparing their service activities. The reactions of the experimental group and teachers of the experimental school were noted during the service programmes, and in the evaluation seminars with the experimental group.

Because memory easily fades, I made notes of what I had observed in my diary whenever I had opportunities. I also taped each service visit to the special school in order to confirm that my observations were correct.

10.2.2.3. Interviews

Semi-structured interviews were widely used in the service learning project. In total, 39 semi-structured interviews related to service learning were conducted with students, teachers, parents and the principal of the experimental school. Of these 39 structured and semi-structured interviews, 20 were interviews with the experimental group, 4 were with the teachers and the curriculum officer of the experimental school; 14 were with the experimental students' parents. One structured interview was arranged with the principal of the experimental school in July 2002.

10.3. RESULTS OF STUDY

Service learning, a form of action learning, is seen as a channel for students to participate actively in learning from citizenship education. The results gained from this service learning project aim to throw light on the implementation of citizenship education in Hong Kong primary schools. The results of the service project, are drawn from different forms of data listed below:

10.3.1 *Reflective Journals*

One of the vital parts of action learning and action research is reflection. In this sense, the reflective journals written by 35 students became an important tool to demonstrate the ability of the students' reflection during the service learning project. With the help of the example of a reflective journal, students put down their reflections in their journals. They were asked to write the journal immediately after each service. In general, girls wrote more detailed¹¹ journals than boys. 15 boys (43%) and 4 girls (11%) only put a few sentences in their journals. Apart from the length of journals, it was found that girls had stronger emotions than boys, too. It should be noted that the quotations of students' writings and reflections from their journals are direct translations from Chinese into English. The accuracy of selected translations was checked by experts who were fluent in both languages.

¹¹ Those students who wrote only two to three sentences in the section on "My feeling" would be regarded as short and not detailed enough and vice versa.

Answers to some research questions, e.g. what knowledge and skills the experimental group had learned in citizenship education and whether the experimental group had demonstrated changes in the five identified moral values, were addressed through the reflective journals written by the experimental group.

In response to the first research question listed above, the areas revealed in the reflective journals in which the experimental group gained most significantly were the enhancement of problem-solving ability, collaboration with their team members and their attitude of respect for others. These are discussed further below.

10.3.1.1 Problem-solving ability

Replies from twenty-one students (73.5%) to the reflective question of ‘how do I solve this problem’ suggested good problem solving ability. From 35 reflective journals, 7 (20%) stated that the best solution in communicating with the handicapped children was not to give up. They said that they had to be patient with them, to take every chance to talk to them and to play with them. Some students displayed their joy in their journals when they eventually succeeded in communicating with the handicapped children. The experimental group was glad to see the positive response from the handicapped children as a result of their persistent attitude. One student wrote: *‘I found it was not too difficult to communicate with the handicapped children. The tips are to face the problem, approach them and talk to them gently. Never yell*

back to the handicapped children because you will scare them, they will lose control and then create trouble.' This statement shows how a member of the experimental group was learning how to cope with problems. He had the courage to face problems, and did not avoid them.

Further evidence of problem-solving skills came from a group of students who had problems in choice of a song to be performed at the birthday party specially organized for the handicapped children. After an argument, they suggested a 'medley', in which each member chose a stanza and combined them into one song. One student seemed very satisfied with this resolution; she wrote in her journal: *'Unexpectedly, the children welcomed our song. They clapped their hands while we were singing.'*

Five students (14.3%) wrote in the journal that they had great problems in making decisions during the planning and discussion stages. Students described in early journal entries how they had quite often argued with their team members. Gradually, they successfully discovered ways of resolving disagreement. The most common was voting. Two students (5.7%) said they would discuss and compromise until the whole team had arrived at a consensus. They found this way worked, and they got along well with each other in the later stage of service.

However, not all the reflective journals displayed positive growth in

problem-solving ability. Twelve students out of thirty-five (34.3%) did not answer the reflective questions ‘difficulties encountered’ and ‘how do you solve the problems’. The blank response to this question might not mean the students had no problem; conversely, it could indicate a careless attitude. It is notable that all these blank responses were from male students. These data suggested that female students had greater interest in service learning than male. This comment was confirmed later by other sources of data.

In sum, the majority of the experimental group demonstrated growth in problem-solving abilities. Some students described the difficulties they encountered in this respect in the early stage of the service, but were able to handle the problems in the later stage. There was evidence that female students showed greater interest in service learning than male.

10.3.1.2 Other knowledge learned in the service project

Apart from problem-solving skills, six students (21%) indicated in their journals that they had learned new things, such as how to handle the wheel-chair when they took the handicapped children for an outing, how to use the hand-signals to communicate with the handicapped children, how to feed the handicapped children, etc.

One of the most impressive statements regarding the knowledge learned in the project was a description of how a student fed a handicapped child. She wrote: ‘I

have never thought that eating with a spoon could be difficult but it was true to the handicapped children. It was very difficult to teach them how to use a spoon to eat. He refused to open his mouth, no matter how hard I begged him. At first I felt very disappointed and wished to give up. After the break, I gave him water. Oh, God! Eventually he sipped some water, though just a little after many trials. I was so grateful to him and thanked him immediately. At that moment, I found the handicapped child was not ignorant. You know what he did? He thanked me, too. I felt very happy.'

The satisfaction and sense of achievement that the student gained were illustrated from her statements in the journal. These statements showed the student had learned how to communicate with the handicapped child she looked after. In total, four students (11.4%) claimed in their journals that their communication skill with the handicapped children had improved. However, one student was frustrated in this respect. In his journal, he wrote: *'I do not know how to deal with the child whom I look after. I do not know whether it means happiness or unhappiness when he salivates. I feel in the dump.'*

To conclude, the experimental group learned how to take care of the handicapped children. Through the project, they learned to be patient with the children.

10.3.1.3 The development of the five moral values

A lot of descriptions on the children's attitudes towards collaboration, respect for

others and participation could be found in their reflective journals but less on civic and social concern, and self regulation.

i) Respect for others

Of the five moral values, the value of respect for others appeared most frequently in the journals. From 35 journals, 17 (49%) had entries relating to respect for others.

The following were extracted from students' reflective journals:

- *I can think. I have intelligence. Unlike the handicapped children, they need our care. However, I would not and should not despise them.*
- *I think the handicapped children only have intelligence problem; they are all right in other aspects. I think we can communicate with each other.*
- *The girl I looked after seemed very happy but kept on salivating. Her saliva dirtied my hands, I did not clean my hands immediately because it was impolite to wipe my hands in front of her.*
- *Teacher told me to shake hands with the handicapped children in order to show my friendliness. I felt uneasy at first but felt better later on. You know, we always have prejudice on the mentally handicapped people. This was the first time we were so close together.*

ii) Collaboration

Many students reflected that they worked collaboratively and happily with their group

members in their journals. Some indicated that they had very positive experience but others still showed that they had problems in collaboration. Among all the activities performed in the service learning project, the birthday party and fun fair were the most impressive activities in enhancing collaboration among students. Thirteen students (37%) displayed satisfaction in collaboration with their group members. Eight out of these thirteen students (23%) clearly indicated that their groups were very cooperative throughout the project. Some specially mentioned that they had never had such a smooth and successful collaboration before. The following statements are captured from their journals:

- *This was the most successful birthday party I had ever had. The atmosphere was full of joy and fun. The handicapped children laughed and yelled. This was the result of good cooperation.*
- *My group had never been so cooperative before. Perhaps they liked the service so they were willing to work together.*
- *We were very cooperative. Everyone contributed their ideas of games for fun fair in the discussion.*
- *My group always discussed matters with each other during the service project, particularly in the preparation of birthday party. Our performance in the party was outstanding. We received a big applause. This was our greatest reward!*

However, not all groups reported such smooth cooperation. In the process of service learning, students came across many problems, such as different opinions on food, selection of performance for the variety show, etc. One student wrote, *'In the preparation of the birthday party, we argued a lot on what food we should prepare for the children. We also had a lot of disagreement about our show. Someone even had temper and emotion in the discussion. However, all of us were so cooperative in the party, everything was smooth.'* The uncooperative attitude also appeared in a journal of a group leader:

'Some group members were too playful during the preparation for birthday party. As their group leader, I had tried to stop them but failed. One member insisted on his suggestions and had no sign of giving way. I did not know how to handle him. In fact, I regret very much to invite him to be our group member. I had made effort to understand him, to communicate with him in order to find out to find a resolution but he seemed to have no interest to cooperate with us.'

But this group leader remarked that his group showed close cooperation and performed successfully at the birthday party. The group gained high commendation from teachers and other classmates after their performance. The uncooperative attitude at the preparation stage and the totally different behaviour in the birthday

party illustrated that this group of students could be responsible. When it was time for the performance, they realized that they should be serious. Thus, they showed two different sides of themselves.

iii) Participation

Not much data on participation was identified from the reflective journals. Only six students (17%) wrote something related to participation. From the data in their reflective journals, students preferred to be in control of the service activities such as birthday party and fun fair rather than to be the assistants of the teachers. One wrote in his journal that *'I feel quite bored in helping teachers to teach the handicapped children about politeness. The lesson was not lively, and the children were not paying attention.'*

iv) Civic and social concern and self regulation

Not many students wrote anything related to civic and social concern and none were about self regulation. Only four students (11.4%) indicated in their journals that they cared for their society. After taking the handicapped children to a supermarket, one student proposed in his reflective journal that the government should build more wheelchair passages for the handicapped people so that they could access their destinations more easily. Another student said in the later stage of service that the government did not give enough assistance to the handicapped.

Table 10.1 displays the overall results found in the reflective journals. The negative reflection data are highlighted in the table.

Table 10.1 Summary of data shown in reflection journals

Items	Frequency N=35 (%)	Positive reflection	Negative reflection
Knowledge	6 (21%)	√	
Skills			
Problem-solving skills	21 (73%) 12 (34.3%)	√	√
Values			
• Respect for others	17 (49%)	√	
• Collaboration	13 (37%)	√	
	2 (5.7%)		√
• Participation	6 (17%)	√	
• Civic & social concern			
• Self-regulation	4 (11.4%)	√	
	NA	NA	NA

10.3.2. *Interview with parents*

How the experimental group behaved at home during the project was unknown to me. In order to gain a comprehensive picture of the attitudes of the experimental group, information and feedback from parents become an important source of data. I arranged 14 interviews with six parents during the service learning project. They were selected mainly because their children were the group leaders of the service project. Four parents were interviewed once at the beginning of the project and once

after the project. Two parents were interviewed three times at different periods in the project. In total, 14 interviews with parents were conducted and all of them were semi-structured. According to the information given by parents, they expected the service learning project to provide opportunities for their children to learn more about society and to learn how to care for others. The interviews focused mainly on changes in the five identified moral values from the perspectives of parents.

10.3.2.1 Changes in the five identified moral values

i) Respect for others

According to the data in all the parents' interviews, students had displayed some changes after the service project. Among the five moral values, the most significant change identified by parents was in respect for others. One parent said that she found her daughter had become more considerate. Another parent highly commended the effect of service learning, she said: *'At first, my child was reluctant to participate because she disliked to see the weird faces of the mentally handicapped children. She did not want to tell me what happened in the project. However, after some time, she begins to accept the handicapped children. Now, she will let me know more about the service, what she has done, how the handicapped children react, and her personal feeling, etc. She becomes more mature than before. She will respect other people, no matter she is in favour of their thinking or behaviour or not.'*

Another parent gave a similar response, reporting that her daughter showed respect to their Filipino maid¹². She would not shout to her maid as she usually had done before her participation in the service project. One parent even said that her child was able to tolerate others and would not so easily lose her temper. Only one parent said that his child had little change in this respect because his child was already well disciplined.

ii) Collaboration

All the respondents remarked that their children showed greater willingness to collaborate with others. Five out of six (83.3%) of the respondents claimed that their children displayed significant change in this aspect. Two (33.3%) said that their children were more collaborative than before, both with family members and with their peers.

One parent gave his views on his son's collaboration with others, '*He always has meetings with his classmates at home for the preparation of the service project. I have found that he has improved his EQ (emotional quotient). Before the service project, he expected others to listen to him, and follow his idea. Perhaps, it's because he is the youngest in the family. He became more reasonable after he had joined the project. Now, he will listen to others and accept others' opinions.*'

¹² In Hong Kong, many families employ domestic helpers to do house work in order to allow the couples to go for work. The majority of the domestic helpers are Filipino maid.

One parent gave the service project high praise: She said, *‘Previously, she seldom approached and contacted her friends or classmates. In this project, she takes initiative to contact her group members for preparation of the activities.’*

In sum, parents’ views on collaboration were favourable and positive.

iii) Participation

In the first interview parents had no comments on how their children participated in the service project. In general, parents only gave brief remarks that their children were all actively involved in the project. They noticed that their children talked more about the service activities of birthday party and fun fair than other service activities. This information illustrated that the experimental group participated more actively in those activities in which they had autonomy in the design of the activities than in those activities in which they only followed instructions.

iv) Civic and social concern

A majority of parents (83.3%) explained that it was normal not to see any special change in this respect because their children were still young. One parent said that he found his son paid more attention to news and read newspaper sometimes, which he never did before. However, he explained that it might not be because of his son’s participation in the service project. He thought that the growth of his son both physically and mentally would be the main reason. In sum, there was no evidence

that the experimental group showed greater civic and social concern as a result of the project.

v) Self-regulation

A majority of the interviewees (83.3%) responded that their children had definitely learned more self control since the implementation of the service project. They gave evidence that their children would not easily lose their temper, were more considerate, and were not as emotional as before. One parent said, *'My daughter becomes more considerate and understanding. She learns to control her temper and emotion in discussion with her friends so that she can complete her task before the deadline.'*

The data on self-regulation supplemented the data which could not be found in reflective journals. Only one parent (16.7%) said that he could see no special change in his son in self-regulation. In sum, it was found that 83.3% showed improvement in self-regulation at home.

Apart from the change in five moral values, according to the parents, the service learning project provided a valuable opportunity for the experimental group to develop their personality. One parent particularly thanked the project for helping her daughter in this respect as her daughter had demonstrated big changes in many aspects, particularly in the enhancement of self-esteem. She described her daughter as a lonely and non-approachable person before the implementation of the service

project. She was aloof and did not like to mix with her classmates. Perhaps this was a reflection of her low self-image because her academic results were not satisfactory. During the service project, she took the initiative to coordinate meetings, and to collect information for the project, etc.

Another parent echoed this point. He said that his son mentioned to him once that he felt he was fortunate to be a healthy person, both physically and mentally. Before participating in the project, his son always complained about food, the living environment, school work, etc. After the project, he seldom heard his son complain. Furthermore, his son showed his concern for the protection of environment by fully utilizing his stationery such as papers and pencils.

Other parents also revealed that they found their children showed more confidence in their work and were becoming more mature in handling their personal matters. The above data suggested that service learning could help develop students' personal and social growth.

From the feedback of all the parents interviewed, they all supported incorporating service learning in the formal curriculum as they saw positive changes in their children. However, some parents doubted whether service learning would be sustained in secondary education and a majority said that they would place the importance of academic study in front of service learning. They would support

service learning on the condition that their children had no problem in academic studies.

10.3.3 Interviews with teachers

Service learning was a new pedagogy for the primary school teachers. Whether or not service learning could be widely implemented in citizenship education in primary school depends on teachers' ability and willingness. Moreover, teachers' opinions on service learning project will affect the future implementation of the action learning pedagogy in citizenship education. Thus, teachers' views on service learning were important. Four teachers-in-charge who assisted me in the service learning project were interviewed twice during the project. As they witnessed the growth and development of the experimental group, they were able to provide valid data on the change of values and behaviours after the service project. One meeting was conducted at the beginning of the service and the other one in July 2002. Apart from the four teachers, the curriculum officer of the experimental school and the class teacher of the experimental group were also interviewed. Therefore, four interviews were conducted; altogether six teachers of the experimental school were interviewed (see table below).

Table 10.2 Teachers' interviews

No.	Date of interview	Teacher involved
1	May 2002	4 teachers-in-charge of the service learning project
2	June 2002	The class teacher of the experimental class
3	July 2002	4 teachers-in-charge of the service learning project
4	July 2002	The curriculum officer of the experimental school

Referring to the research questions set for this study, the results from teachers' perspective are illustrated below:

10.3.3.1 Changes in the five identified moral values in the experimental group

i) Respect for others

Teachers agreed with parents and the children themselves in reporting improvement in the value of respect for others after three months service in the special school for seriously mentally handicapped. In the interview the class teacher who taught Chinese Language to the experimental group said that she recognized the change through students' behaviour and the contents of their diaries¹³. According to the class teacher, more than half of the class was sympathetic to the handicapped children but the students respected them despite the children being mentally handicapped. This kind of expression also appeared in 17 reflective journals written by the experimental group. The class teacher also said that she noticed a great improvement in interpersonal relationships within the experimental group. They did not quarrel as frequently as before the implementation of the service project: '*It*

¹³ It is a common practice in Hong Kong that students have to submit their weekly diaries to their Chinese Language teacher.

seems that they know everyone has the right to speak up after the service project.

They set their own rules for discussion; that every member should allow other people to speak up.'

The four teachers-in-charge of the service project shared the opinions of the class teacher. They reported that the experimental group had refused to approach the mentally handicapped children at the beginning of the project but were willing to cooperate with the special school social workers after one or two visits. More important, some students became friends of the handicapped children. One of the teachers-in-charge further described that she had been moved and impressed when a handicapped child touched the face of a student in the experimental group and hugged her. This teacher said that she was touched when she saw this scene.

The curriculum officer also noticed this change. She said the students were more polite to their classmates and the janitors in school.

In sum, all teachers noted that the experimental group had developed a positive value of respect for others, though some only showed slight improvement.

ii) Collaboration

The four teachers-in-charge of the service learning project noticed changes in students' collaboration with each other. Two teachers further spelled out that the experimental group argued a lot in the early stage of service learning. In the later

stage, students showed improvement. They had found their own way to sort out things such as taking turns to speak and voting to decide a matter. They noticed that more than half of the experimental group showed changes in this respect. Only one group (four students, 11.4%) had significant problem in working collaboratively with each other.

The class teacher also noticed the same problem in that particular group. She said that the majority of the students were willing to share their views and opinions with others, but not that particular group.

The curriculum officer shared the same view that collaboration had improved after the service project. To summarize the above data, all interviewees agreed that majority of the experimental group, over 80% of them, displayed positive changes in collaboration.

iii) Participation

Of the four teachers-in-charge of service learning, three remarked that the majority of the experimental group participated actively throughout the service project. They appreciated students' committed attitude to serve the mentally handicapped children regardless of the very hot weather. One teacher commented that the improvement was individual; not all of the students showed value change towards participation.

The class teacher made a positive remark on students' value towards

participation. She said that students' diaries revealed they were very active and positive about participating in the project.

iv) Civic and social concern

The class teacher made a lot of comments on this aspect. She said that her class showed significant concern for society. This was evident from the students' inquiries about the problems of air pollution in Hong Kong.

Of the four teachers-in-charge, three of them told me that students showed a slight change in civic and social concern. One opined that students would develop deeper understanding and knowledge about their society if the service project could continue for a longer period.

The curriculum officer also confirmed that the experimental group were more concerned about Hong Kong society.

In sum, the four teachers-in-charge felt that the experimental group showed little change in civic and social concern but the class teacher and the curriculum officer opined that the experimental group displayed significant change.

iv) Self-regulation

All four teachers-in-charge of the service project shared the feeling that girls behaved better and showed more apparent improvement than boys. One teacher remarked that some students were very serious during the service but were out of control

outside the service activity. She added that they were only primary students so their uncontrolled behaviours were understandable. Another teacher said that two students who were very self-centred and emotional showed improvement.

10.3.3.2 The importance of the facilitator role in action learning

All six teachers admitted that the facilitator was one of the key factors contributing to the success of action learning. They all agreed that a teacher as a facilitator could enhance the learning atmosphere and could help build up better teacher-pupil rapport. At first, the four teachers-in-charge had reservations about the feasibility of a facilitator role in action learning. They strongly suspected that such role learning would create disciplinary problems. They changed their views when they witnessed how I interacted with the experimental group during the preparation sessions for the service activities and realized that clear instructions and guidance would solve the discipline problem and would help students develop various skills and abilities, particularly their problem-solving abilities.

However, not all the interviewees always adopted the facilitator role in their teaching. Only the curriculum officer and the class teacher quite often used the teacher as facilitator technique. The four teachers-in-charge, who only had one to two years of teaching experience, told me that they seldom tried the facilitator role in their teaching. *‘The major reason is inadequate teaching time,’* one teacher said. *‘It*

needs more time to complete the task if adopting a facilitator role', she remarked.

They further added that the congested curriculum was another key factor that jeopardized any change in teaching method.

10.3.3.3 Effectiveness of service learning in citizenship education

It is undeniable that service learning allows students to acquire and apply knowledge and skills and to develop attitudes beyond classroom. As noted by Kinsley and McPherson (1995), Wade (1997, 2000, 2001), Waterman (1997), and many others, service learning is an effective strategy in citizenship education. It provides opportunities for students to develop their skills, knowledge and attitudes.

i) An opportunity to enhance various learning skills

The four teachers-in-charge of the service learning project listed various skills that the experimental group had developed through the project such as social skills, problem-solving skills, decision-making skills, collaboration skills and leadership skills, etc. All the four teachers admitted that problem-solving skills showed most improvement during the project.

10.3.3.4 The development of teachers' teaching competence

It is important for teachers to change their role from that of traditional instructor role to facilitator. The four teachers-in-charge did not demonstrate their facilitator role well during the project. They were too eager to tell students what they ought to do and what they ought not to do. Though given many reminders about the importance

of being a facilitator in action learning, the teachers consciously and subconsciously asked students to follow their instructions. For example, while the students were preparing their stall games for the fun fair, they automatically gave their own ideas to students. They were competent in giving instructions but not as facilitators.

The four teachers in the experimental school highly commended the outcomes of the service project, but nevertheless seemed not very supportive to this strategy. They confirmed that students showed positive changes in attitude; they had learned new knowledge; and they were able to apply knowledge and skills in the project. However, they doubted whether this project could be implemented without involvement of an external facilitator/trainer from the Hong Kong Institute of Education. They also agreed that the experimental group had benefited a lot from the service project, but all four teachers said that they would not take initiative in designing and conducting such a “large scale” service learning project as this one. Mainly because the project lasted so long, they were not able to give their time and energy for three months to supervise the students. Beside, they all felt that they would be overloaded if they needed to assess students’ work by marking their reflective journals. They would not reject service learning if they could have more resources and support, for example, reducing their teaching load and no assessments.

The curriculum officer and the class teacher of the experimental group had

different views. They were very positive about implementing service learning in primary schools. Both of them had the same opinion that service learning did not necessarily need to last as long as three months. They shared the view of the four teachers-in-charge that a three months service learning project would probably cause heavy pressure on their normal teaching load. The curriculum officer specifically pointed out that service learning should be incorporated into the formal curriculum, to avoid causing extra workload.

Regarding assessment, the class teacher strongly supported the reflective journal, arguing that it should be maintained in service learning because it was an important channel to help students reflect on what they learnt and how they felt. In her view, whether a reflective journal should be assessed or not was not an important matter. However, she reminded me that if it were not assessed, students would not be conscientious about writing the journal.

In sum, six teachers (100%), included the curriculum development officer, regarded service learning as effective in developing students' positive attitudes and personal and social growth. Four out of 6 (66.6%) of the teachers were strongly opposed to a long-term service learning project because it would create extra workload; and they believed that service learning should not be assessed. Two respondents (33.3%) accepted reflective journals as a method of assessment. The

curriculum officer particularly stated that service learning should be included as part of the formal curriculum.

10.3.4 Interview with the principal of the experimental school

The interview with the principal was a structured interview. She highly commended the outcomes of the service project. In the interview, she argued that service learning helped students develop a sense of citizenship. She contended that the values of helping others, caring for others, and nurturing a sense of belonging could be instilled through service learning. Moreover, various skills such as inquiry skills, social skills, etc. were also developed. The principal particularly emphasized the contemporary need for inquiry skills and participatory approaches, as these were the current trend in teaching and learning. She anticipated that service learning could help teachers change their teaching strategies from a traditional teacher-centred approach to child-centred approach. As a result, she planned to include service learning in the formal curriculum in the coming years. Regarding the scale of service learning, which had worried the four teachers-in-charge, the school principal agreed that without external support such as my help in designing and arranging the project, she would have had reservations about whether the service project could be implemented smoothly. The principal asserted that reflective journals should be encouraged as far as possible as this was consistent with future trends in assessment.

Furthermore, she felt that the experimental teaching in the first cycle and the classroom teaching in the second cycle should be reinforced in teaching and learning. The school principal concluded that service learning was an effective strategy in citizenship education development and she would encourage teachers to include this strategy in their teaching.

10.3.5 Evidence of attitude change based on observations and interviews with students

My own observations during the service project and the 20 interviews with students provided evidence that students' values had changed during the service learning project.

10.3.5.1 Respect for others

i) interviews with students

Some interviews with students were in small groups and some were individual. In the interviews with 20 students, eight (40%) admitted that they had learned how to respect other people, particularly when they had different opinions. Students also asserted that they had a set rules for themselves during group work. Members of the group had to take turns to express their views if they wished to speak up at the same time. The rest (60%) were not aware whether they had changed in this respect. All the interviewees (100%) indicated that perceptions of mentally handicapped children had changed in comparison with their response on the first meeting. They were no

longer afraid to see the mentally handicapped children. Four children (20%) specially mentioned that they had begun to treat the handicapped children as 'ordinary people'. One student said that before participating in this project, they used 'a special, strange and despised attitude' towards the handicapped children. After three months getting along with them, they had begun to treat them as normal people.

One student said in the interview:

At first, I thought the mentally handicapped children were very different, at least from their appearance. After getting along with them for three months, I realize that there is no big difference between us. Though their appearance are different but they are human beings. They cry when they are sad, laugh when they are happy, just like anyone of us.

Another student reflected that she had not known how to respect others before service.

Her classmates always criticized her because she was very dominant. She said:

Before the project, I thought that my duty was to take care of the mentally handicapped children; however, I have found that I come here to make friends. We are so happy when we play and learn together. Before joining in this project, whenever I met the handicapped children in the streets, I purposely changed my route. I would not approach them, not to say to be their friends. Now, I understand more about handicapped

children, I accept them as my friends and I am not scared to meet them anymore.

ii) observations

My own observations were consistent with the results of interviews. A majority of the students showed signs of anxiety in the first visit to the special school but were calm in the later stages. My own observations also indicated that students treated the handicapped children as their friends. However, not all the students had this attitude. I noticed that five or six students out of thirty-five (17.1%), retained an uncommitted and aloof attitude throughout the service. When I asked them why they stood aside and watched, their response was they could not communicate with the children.

From the results of my own observations and interviews with students, I found that most students changed their behaviour towards mentally handicapped children, from keeping a distance from them to willingly making friends with them. Only a few students remained reluctant to serve as they could not communicate with the handicapped children. In sum, the moral value of respect for others became stronger during the service project.

10.3.5.2 Collaboration

The service learning project required a lot of group work, and thus provided good opportunities for the development of collaboration. The students' collaboration with

each other improved as described by their teachers and parents. Their reflective journals also displayed evidence of positive change in collaboration. Data from interviews and observations confirmed this change.

Unlike the evidence on respect for others, four of 20 interviewees (20%) revealed that they had not had happy experiences with their classmates. They complained that their group members sometimes did not show up for the preparation meetings and were not attentive in discussions. Despite these complaints, students explained that their group members usually performed well when giving service to the handicapped children. Thus, they said that their group members were uncooperative in preparation but very cooperative in the service sessions.

It was found that students learnt to set their own rules in group discussion. Some students requested group members to take turns to speak; some used voting to make decisions. No matter which method they used, 80% of the respondents were satisfied with the collaborative attitude of their group mates and this improved as the project progressed.

Responses from students in the interviews correlated with my own observations. One particular group displayed serious problems in collaboration. The group leader tried to coordinate his group members during discussion but did not receive positive responses from them. The group members did not concentrate when they discussed

what to perform for the handicapped children at the birthday party. Nevertheless the performance of this group gained great applause from teachers, classmates and the seriously mentally handicapped children.

10.3.5.3 Participation

From my own observation, the majority of the students were actively involved. Only six students were not very committed but still they participated in all sessions of the project. The attendance at each service session was excellent. The attendance rate was over 90% except at the last service session which was only 43%. Twenty students were absent in that programme because they were required to attend the orientation programme arranged by their secondary schools.

In the interviews with students, I found that girls showed more interest in serving the seriously mentally handicapped children than boys. All the ten female interviewees remarked that they liked the service project because it was very meaningful. Six male students (30%) regarded the service project as part of the learning and they felt that they had a responsibility to serve. The participation of the experimental group had been excellent from the first cycle of action learning.

10.3.5.4 Civic and social concern

Interviews with students during the service project did not reveal any significant change in students' civic and social concern. Only four students out of twenty (20%)

mentioned that the Hong Kong government should provide better care for the handicapped children. The rest had no opinions or gave no response to this question. However, the civic and social concern was evident at the follow-up interviews in later days. In the post project interviews conducted in December 2002, i.e. six months after the completion of action learning project, I interviewed six students. By that time, they had been promoted to secondary school. In the interviews, all students revealed that the most important effect on themselves from the two-year action learning project was greater awareness of current affairs both locally and internationally. Four students (67%) said that caring and concern for society was one of the responsibilities of citizens. In this sense, the action learning project was a stimulant to the students in the development of civic and social concern.

10.3.5.5 Self-regulation

In general, there was no evidence of change in self-regulation from the interviews with students. However, a few students showed significant improvement. For example, one boy who had emotional problems, associated with his family background, would burst into temper, pushing down desks and chairs, bullying others, etc. if he was provoked by his classmates. After joining the service project, this boy became able to control himself and was not as destructive and violent as before. More than once he told me that he liked the service activities. From my observation,

I could confirm that what he said was true. He smiled at the handicapped children and talked to them softly whenever he worked with them. One incident illustrated the importance of the service for him. In the last service activity for the handicapped children, he had a fight with his group members at the special school. He suddenly cried and pushed over the chairs in the classroom. I then separated him from his classmates and took him to another classroom. He told me that his group members had changed the plan without notifying him. He felt insulted. At that moment, he was uncontrollable and did not want to hear any advice. I then told him that I would send him home immediately if he could not control himself. He cried uncontrollably, but after a moment, he calmed down and asked to go back to the service. I explained to him the misunderstanding between himself and his friends, he was then friendly to his group members again. This incident illustrated how service learning could provide opportunities both for service learning and for self-regulation.

10.3.6 Questionnaire

Data from the pre-test and post-test questionnaire also provided evidence of change in students' respect for others. Two items related to respect in the questionnaire were 'respecting others' opinions', and 'respecting teachers'. The mean of the pre-test result was 3.26 for respecting others' opinions' and 3.53 in the post-test survey. The p-value was 0.035, so the change was significant. For the item of 'respecting

teachers’, the mean of pre-test result was 3.32, while the mean of post-test was 3.87, the p-value was 0.00 (Table 10.3). The results of these two moral values in the Part II of questionnaire survey showed that students’ moral values in the aspect of respect for others had changed by the end of the service learning.

Table 10.3 Results of ten moral values in the pretest and posttest questionnaire survey

Items	Pre/Post Test	<i>Mean</i>	t-test	p-value	Effect size
Filial to parents	Pretest	3.71	0.10	NS	0.56
	Posttest	4.00			
Respecting teachers	Pretest	3.32	0.00*	p < .05	0.96
	Posttest	3.87			
Helping others	Pretest	3.11	0.005***	p < .05	0.92
	Posttest	3.67			
Obeying law and order	Pretest	3.38	0.432	NS.	0.22
	Posttest	3.53			
Caring and concerned for my society	Pretest	2.85	0.009***	p < .05	0.77
	Posttest	3.40			
Serving the society	Pretest	2.82	0.006***	p < .05	0.86
	Posttest	3.47			
Studying hard	Pretest	3.62	0.091	NS	0.43
	Posttest	3.87			
Respecting others’ opinions	Pretest	3.26	0.035*	p < .05	0.46
	Posttest	3.53			
Protecting the environment of the earth	Pretest	2.97	0.035*	p < .05	0.55
	Posttest	3.53			
Loving my Country	Pretest	2.41	0.029*	p < .05	0.70
	Posttest	3.13			

A change of value towards civic and social concern was also shown in the

questionnaire survey. Two items related to this were ‘serving the society’ and ‘caring and concerned my society’. Both showed significant changes in the post-test questionnaire survey. The results are shown in Table 10.3.

For ‘caring and concerned for my society’, the mean of pre-test survey was 2.85, but in the post-test survey, the mean increased to 3.40. The p-value of this item was 0.009. Concerning the other item ‘serving the society’, the scenario was the same. In the pre-test survey, the mean was 2.82, but the post-test survey was 3.47. The p-value was 0.006. Both items indicated that students’ values about serving the society had changed.

To conclude, from different sources of data, service learning provided opportunities for the experimental group to acquire and apply knowledge and skills beyond classroom learning; for example problem-solving skills and decision-making skills were well developed in the service project. From the reflective journals and the data for interviews with parents, the service project was also a channel for personal growth and development. Students’ moral values changed after they had worked with the seriously mentally handicapped children for three months. These changes were confirmed by the pre-test and post-test questionnaire surveys (chapter 9) and the results of interviews with parents, teachers and the school principal. The summary of the changes of the experimental group in the five identified moral values

from various source of data is shown in table 10.4.

Table 10.4 Summary of changes in the five identified moral values of the experimental group

Source of data Results Moral Values	Reflective Journals	Parents	Teachers	Observation	Question- naires
Respect for others	***	***	***	***	***
Collaboration	***	***	***	***	*
Participation	***	***	***	***	*
Civic & social concern	*	**	**	*	***
Self-regulation	*	***	**	*	*

*** = significant change ** = moderate change * = insignificant change

Though the results of the service learning project were encouraging, the four teachers-in-charge of the project seemed not very supportive towards a ‘long-term’ and ‘large-scale’ service learning project. The major reasons were their heavy workload and that the congested curriculum did not allow them to allocate time to a long term service project. Lack of resources was another major reason that would jeopardize service learning. Parents were supportive but on the condition that their children had no problem in academic studies. However, the class teacher, the curriculum officer and the principal were very supportive.

10.4 DISCUSSION

The main findings of the third cycle addressed most of the research questions. Regarding the research question of whether the experimental group displayed any

changes in the five identified moral values, different sources of data illustrated positive results, particularly in the values of respect for others and collaboration.

10.4.1 Changes in five identified moral values

Several sources of data illustrated that students demonstrated positive attitudinal changes after the implementation of the service learning project. But not all different sets of data showed identical results, for example, in reflective journals the most significant changes were in the values of respect for others and collaboration, and the least significant was self-regulation. My observation supported these findings. However, in the interviews parents and teachers all pointed out that the experimental group also showed significant improvement in self-regulation.

The discrepancy in findings was not unexpected when I designed this research study. Because I was not on the employed staff of the experimental school, I visited the school and the students only once a week during the research study. As a result, my understanding of the students was limited. The most appropriate persons to provide detailed information to fill the gaps in knowledge about students' behaviours beyond the project were teachers and parents. Furthermore, some very down to earth details could not be found in the reflective journal. There were several reasons: first, the students' proficiency in language was limited. Second, students would not spend too much time or effort in writing a non-assessed reflective journal. Nearly

half of the experimental group only gave very simple reflections in their journals showing limited commitment. Third, the design of the model reflective journal might have affected students' thinking. On one hand, it aimed to guide students on how to reflect on their feelings as this was their first trial in writing a reflective journal; on the other hand, the guided reflective journal may have controlled students' thinking. Fortunately, data provided by teachers, parents and interviews with students filled this gap and made the research more comprehensive and thorough.

Apart from the significant changes in the above values, another change worth discussion was the value towards civic and social concern. Not many students mentioned that they cared for their society, and parents also reported few changes. In contrast, information provided by teachers and the follow-up data I collected six months after the service project illustrated that students' attitudes had changed. In the post-project interview with six student representatives (three boys and three girls) of the experimental group, four students (67%) clearly stated that they noticed they felt more concern for their society; three students (50%) said that they cared about the environment, not only restricted to the environment of Hong Kong but also the environment of the whole world. They admitted that this change was partly because of their participation in the action learning project in the past two years and partly because they were growing up. All three female students said that the service

learning project had been very influential, and they wished to have a chance to serve society again. They complained that they did not have any service learning in their junior secondary school. The other three male students, though they did not rate service learning as the most impressive activity in the action learning project, still regarded service learning as a meaningful and valuable learning experience. Their responses raise two questions: (1) How can service learning be implemented in the congested curriculum of Hong Kong? (2) What are the reasons that hinder teachers from implementing service learning in their teaching?

10.4.2 Teacher's competence in service learning

The four teachers-in-charge did not develop competence in service learning as they only acted as my assistants. They did not have adequate background knowledge to conduct service learning and did not perform their role as facilitator well during the project. Their reactions showed that training teachers to become facilitators is necessary before initiating an action learning project.

Teachers also reiterated in the interviews that they had reservations about the assessment of reflective journals. This was not only because marking the journals would increase their workload; their concern was also about the difficulties in assessing the journals. Their reaction suggests that training for teachers in authentic assessment is an urgent need. Furthermore, there is a need to construct a clear

structure for assessment before the implementation of service learning.

Though they agreed that service learning could make a powerful contribution to citizenship education and was valuable in developing students' personal and social growth, all teachers in the experimental school doubted the feasibility of implementing a three-month service learning project in such an overloaded teaching environment and congested teaching curriculum. This illustrated problems in curriculum design in the educational system of Hong Kong. Their contradictory reactions were understandable and raised several questions: first, how to create space for service learning in the current curriculum? Second, should the school review the workload of teachers in order to relieve their grievances? Third, what training is needed to equip teachers with the knowledge and skills required in running a service learning project? However, in view of their stressful and overloaded working conditions, whether teachers can spare their 'free' time to attend training is in doubt. Another question generated is whether the goals stipulated in the documents published by CDC (2001) *Learning to Learn –The Way Forward in Curriculum Development* and CDC (2002a) *Curriculum Guide for Basic Education -- Moral and Civic Education* can be achieved? Last but not least, would a small scale service learning project bring the same results as this 'large scale' project? If it could, how 'small' should the service be?

10.4.3 Factors contributing to success of service learning

10.4.3.1 The length of service

A long-term service learning project would cause more workload but not as much as the four teachers believed. In fact, their duties were mainly supervising the students and some very minor administration, such as taking roll call and booking venues for preparation, so the load was not very heavy. Teachers felt overloaded and resentful because they lost their free time¹⁴ every Friday afternoon for three months. They could use this period of time to do many other things. In this connection, if the experimental school decides to incorporate service learning in the formal curriculum, teachers taking charge of the project should have their duties counted as part of their formal teaching duties. Then, the problem of ‘overload’ might be reduced.

Furthermore, for two reasons, service over a three month period is more likely to be effective than a small scale, short-term service. First, the experimental group had previous experiences of several service projects conducted by the school. All these were only one-off activities, for example visiting a home for the aged during Christmas, planting trees, etc. According to the students, this kind of service made little impact though they regarded the experiences as meaningful. However, memories of the service in the special school for the seriously handicapped were still

¹⁴ Some primary schools in Hong Kong are still practicing morning and afternoon sessions. In other words, there are two independent schools in one premise. In this sense, teachers of morning school are ‘free’ in the afternoon.

fresh in the minds of the six students when I interviewed them six months after the project. Secondly, a one-off or short-term service does not allow students to make a sustained commitment to the organization and individuals they serve. Furthermore, true service is not the same as charity. I found most teachers confused the concepts of charity and service learning. They regarded service as a chance to serve the needy in order to develop a caring attitude in students. This missed the point made by Wade (1997a) that service learning involves working with others rather than for others. Service learning is a vehicle to help students grow and learn. It is difficult to measure outcomes from short-term service. As asserted by Conrad (1991), the effect of service learning can only be seen in a longer programme.

10.4.3.2 Creating a democratic atmosphere

The prerequisite for developing students' five identified moral values was creating a democratic atmosphere. In order to enhance students' skills and develop their positive attitudes, they needed adequate opportunities to work freely with their group members. However, the four teachers-in-charge exerted too much control over the students' planning during my absence¹⁵. Students complained about this during the project and in the interviews. They preferred, and were confident in, solving the problems themselves. The teachers' reaction was understandable. They were not

¹⁵ As I was not the staff of the experimental school, whenever students had problems in their preparation, they would approach the four teachers-in-charge.

used to the facilitator role in learning. Fortunately, their excessive control behaviour did not occur very often. Students were still able to enjoy a free and democratic atmosphere during the project.

10.4.3.3 Opportunity for reflection

Reflection is an integral part of service learning (Close Up Foundation, 1995). As Wade (1997b) asserts, '*Reflection is a means for relieving or recapturing our experience in order to make sense of it, to learn from it, and to develop new understandings and appreciations.* (p.94)' The reflective journal made students think about how they performed in the service and what they had learnt from their experience. It also enhanced students' critical thinking skills and their empathy with the seriously mentally handicapped children. Without reflective journals, students might not have been encouraged to think so deeply. The class teacher echoed this point as she found her students wrote a lot about the service in their Chinese essays.

10.4.3.4 Integrated with curriculum

Effective service learning must be integrated with the academic curriculum (Close Up Foundation, 1995; Wade, 1997; Holden, 1998; Service-Learning Quadrant, 2001). The theme of the action learning was "environmental protection". Students were able to practise what they learnt in classroom when they rendered service, for example, in their planning they had to think about what materials should not be used for stall

games in the fun fair (such as foam rubber) in order to protect our environment. The experimental group expressed in their interviews that they felt a strong sense of achievement when they could apply what they had learnt in the classroom in the service project. By then, they realized book knowledge was useful in daily life. Furthermore, results in the post-service interview confirmed that students were concerned about the environment after the whole action learning project.

10.5 CONCLUSION

Service learning is a valuable and powerful strategy in developing students as good citizens because it provides an opportunity for students to develop their sense of civic and social responsibility. This is reflected in students' journals and in the commendations given by parents and teachers. Service learning can be the foundation for personal and social growth and development. It can also be a foundation for educational reform such as from rote learning to authentic learning, from traditional to participatory learning. It can be powerful in achieving the goal of preparing students to becoming contributing citizens to their classroom, school and community. Caring values were developed in the service learning project. It allowed students to apply, for example, their knowledge about food when preparing a birthday party for the handicapped, and to acquire knowledge and skills such as using

hand signals to greet the handicapped children, pushing wheel chairs, etc. throughout the project. In this service learning project, the experimental students showed significant changes in respect for others, collaboration, participation and self-regulation. The reflective journal and my own observations did not show any significant change in civic and social concern. However, the feedback from the class teacher and the questionnaires, indicated that students made significant changes in this respect. Research results also showed that girls had larger changes than boys. This is not unexpected as girls mature earlier than boys in adolescence.

It was a bit disappointing that the four teachers taking part in the service project were not so supportive towards the implementation of a 'long term' service project, though they admitted that a long term service learning project was beneficial to students. Their excuse was mainly because of their heavy workload. Also, the four teachers had reservations about adopting reflective journals because such forms of assessment would increase their workload. But the school principal, the class teacher and the curriculum officer were very supportive towards the implementation of service learning in the formal curriculum. The dichotomy between the two groups showed that some very enthusiastic teachers would not object to the increase in workload. They were more influenced by the benefits for their students. Teachers' reactions in this project indicate there are many obstacles to the promotion of action

learning and service learning strategies in primary school.

CHAPTER ELEVEN

DISCUSSION

11.1 INTRODUCTION

According to Newmann (1975), Kolb (1984), McGill and Beaty (1995) and Jones (2000), action learning can nurture active citizenship. The design of this study on the effectiveness of an action learning strategy was a response to Curriculum Development Council's (2001, 2002a) publication of two basic education documents: *Learning to Learning* and *the Curriculum Guide for Basic Education -- Moral and Civic Education*- respectively. The five main research questions were: (1) What sort of "action learning" programmes would be suitable for primary children in learning citizenship? (2) What was the teacher's role in action learning? Was the teacher's role as a facilitator important in action learning? (3) Did students show changes in the five moral values identified by CDC (2002a), viz. respect for others, collaboration, participation, civic and social concern, and self-regulation after the action learning project? (4) What were the views of teachers, principal and parents in providing action learning in school? (5) What impact would the action learning strategy have on citizenship education?

As action research means putting theory into practice (Elliot, 1991), it unifies inquiry, the improvement of performance and the development of persons in their

professional role (p.51). These principles matched my overall aim, i.e. to improve the teaching and learning of citizenship education. The findings of the study were encouraging, but the results also revealed some major education problems in Hong Kong. The following paragraphs will discuss both the positive results and the problems, and consider whether the problems identified in the study could be solved. The relevance of an action learning strategy in citizenship education in Hong Kong will also be discussed in a wider context.

11.2 OVERVIEW OF FIELDWORK

11.2.1 *One sample case*

This study took place in an average primary school. The justification for a single case study was provided by Miles and Huberman's (1994) observation: 'qualitative researchers usually work with small samples of people, nested in their context and studied in-depth' (p.27). The research aimed to study in depth teachers' perceptions and competence in action learning, the values and attitudes of the students, the perceptions of parents, etc. Furthermore, no teaching is alike even when the same curriculum is taught to different classes. Hence, a single case study was justified. The experimental school was typical of primary schools in Hong Kong in terms of background characteristics such as size, organization and parental occupations. In

this sense, the findings could be considered representative.

11.2.2 *The design of the fieldwork*

The whole study was divided into three cycles: the demonstration of an action learning strategy, the classroom teaching and the service learning. The progressive design of the three cycles was planned with reference to the logistics of school management such as timetabling, teaching schedule and school activities. The progressive design was important as the first cycle provided the preparation for the second, while the second and third cycles actualized the theory of action learning. The first cycle of demonstration was like a thermometer, testing the feasibility of the adoption of an action learning approach in a normal teaching context. Without the first cycle of demonstration teaching, teachers might not have been able to understand the differences between an action learning approach and their traditional teaching approach. The demonstration also gave the experimental teacher confidence to try out the experimental strategy in her normal teaching. However, if I could have another opportunity to trial an action learning approach, I would give an observation guide to the teacher-observers to facilitate their observations of my demonstration. By doing so, the observations could be more structured and systematic. For example, I would ask teachers to compare the differences between an action learning approach and a traditional approach, and the benefits of adopting a facilitator role. Thus,

teachers might gain deeper understanding of action learning.

The classroom teaching in the second cycle required my collaboration with the experimental teacher. We designed the learning activities together, discussed students' performance and shared the experience of teaching. Without the observation in the first cycle, the experimental teacher might have needed more time to improve her teaching. The third cycle was a service learning project in which students had opportunities to apply knowledge, values and skills in the community learned from previous cycles. According to the definition stated in the National and Community Act (1990) of the United States quoted by Waterman (1997), service learning enhances what is taught in school by extending student learning beyond the classroom and into the community and helps to foster the development of a sense of caring for others (Public Law 101-610). Service learning was thus incorporated in the teaching curriculum in this study as the third cycle of action research.

In sum, the first cycle served as an introduction to the teachers of the action learning pedagogy, the second cycle was the implementation of this pedagogy in a normal teaching context. The activities conducted in the first and second cycles were closely related to the General Studies curriculum designed by the Curriculum Development Institute. The third cycle (service learning) was the application of knowledge, values and skills learned in the first and second cycles.

11.2.2.1 The purpose

The major purpose of this research project was to explore the effectiveness of an action learning approach to citizenship education in classroom teaching and learning, and outside the classroom. It aimed to provide a response to the CDC (2001, 2002) documents because CDC did not give many practical details in these two documents. The incorporation of service learning was a great challenge because it is a new concept for many primary school teachers. Many teachers confuse service learning with community service. The latter does not necessarily include a learning component. Many teachers do not recognize the power of service learning to promote the growth of students. It was in anticipation that the outcomes of this study could help to change the concepts of teaching and learning of citizenship education in Hong Kong that I designed the fieldwork. The findings of the research study suggested that a well designed and structured action learning programme could achieve this goal.

11.2.2.2 Duration of each cycle

Each cycle lasted from three to five months. The length of demonstration teaching in the first cycle was appropriate because if this cycle had been too short, I would not have had adequate time to explore the feasibility of an action learning pedagogy. If it had been too long, the teacher-observers would have found it a burden as they had

to use their personal time to attend the demonstration lessons.

For the second cycle, as it was broken up by the long Easter holidays, only ten lessons were possible, which was a bit short. If the study could have been lengthened, it would have benefited both the experimental teacher, in term of more opportunities to practise the action learning strategy, and also the research study itself because more data collected from the field would have increased the reliability of the study.

The three months service learning project was appropriate in terms of duration and important in testing the effectiveness of the action learning pedagogy. The length of the service learning project allowed students to work more closely and in more depth with their group-mates and thus enhanced their understanding. Students also learned how to respect each other's opinions and get along with their friends. These results might not have been shown if the service learning project had been shorter. If it had been longer, students might have felt exhausted as they were already heavily occupied with other extra-curricular activities. Currently, service learning for longer than three months is not feasible for three reasons: first, the overcrowded curriculum does not allow much spare time for the implementation of a longer service learning project. Second, there is a lack of information regarding service learning, such as organizations that offer opportunities for it. That means

teachers would have to spend more time on searching for projects and liaison work. If several schools had served the special school for seriously mentally handicapped at the same time it would greatly have affected the normal life of the handicapped children. Apart from this, the government has not yet provided any financial support in implementing a service learning project. Thirdly, teachers' workload would definitely be increased if the service project were to last longer than three months. Whether teachers could absorb the additional workload is in doubt. Perhaps in future, when the implementation of service learning is mature, schools might consider a longer service project.

11.2.2.3 Roles of participants in this study

The roles of the participants in this study changed according to the progress of the study. In the first cycle, I was the teacher who demonstrated the action learning strategy to the four teacher-observers. Clearly, I had the investigator role, investigating the feasibility of the implementation of action learning in a normal teaching context. In the second cycle, one of the teacher-observers became the experimental teacher. The experimental teacher had difficulty adopting the role of a facilitator at the beginning of the second cycle of research. In the beginning of the second cycle, she tended to act as an instructor, adopting her usual teaching role. In the later part of her classroom teaching, she became able to play the role of facilitator

rather than an instructor. In changing her role from instructor to facilitator she went through the process of experience and reflection. If I had let the experimental teacher participate actively in the first cycle, for example by acting as my helper, or if we had planned the programmes together, the experimental teacher might have been able to act as a facilitator earlier in the second stage of research.

In the third cycle, the roles of the experimental students were mixed. First, they were practitioners applying the knowledge and skills learned in the first and second cycles. They acted as helpers in the lessons for the seriously mentally handicapped children; and as organizers and performers in the birthday party and fun fair for the handicapped children. All these roles provided a high level of participation for students. According to de Winter's (1997) classification of participation, the service project reached a high level of participation. A high level of participation is important to students in their development as de Winter pointed out that 'participation is a way of enlarging the influence of the young on their own living situation and living environment, but it is also a way of shaping and strengthening their commitment to society (1997, p.43).'

Four teachers were appointed by the experimental school to be my assistants. The four teacher-helpers agreed that the students demonstrated positive changes after the service learning project, but they doubted the feasibility of implementing service

learning in the school curriculum. The major reason was the teachers were already overloaded with their teaching and other duties. However, I believed that their attitudes might change if they were the initiators, not the assistants. If this were so, they would have higher satisfaction with the outcomes of the service project.

In sum, the whole study emphasized collaboration through a variety of group work and activities because the fundamental idea of action learning is to 'bring people together to learn from other's experience' (Kemmis & McTaggart, 2000. p. 570). The three cycles of action research showed positive results from an action learning strategy in citizenship education on one hand, while on the other hand, the research study also revealed some educational problems that occur in Hong Kong.

11.3 METHODOLOGICAL ISSUES

11.3.1 Choice of methodology for experimental project

The major consideration for the choice of methodology was whether it could address the research questions. The key research questions were related to the effectiveness of action learning pedagogy, the teacher's role in action learning, the changes in students' attitudes and values, and the reactions of people concerned in the study. The main features of action research in education are the commitment to educational improvement and the involvement and participation of teachers in the research.

According to Elliott (2003), one of the five principles of action research is that it 'has a developmental aim which specifies ideals that practitioners are personally committed to [sic]' (p.182). Park (2001) also points out that 'The more obvious purpose of participatory research is to bring about changes by improving the material circumstances of affected people (p.81).' The thrust of my study was to inquire into the effectiveness of an action learning strategy in citizenship education. It was explained above that teachers in primary schools were lacking the professional skills for the implementation of citizenship education. Their teaching was not in line with the educational reform of Hong Kong so my commitment was to improve the teaching and learning of citizenship education through an action learning pedagogy.

The second feature of action research is that the researcher takes an active participatory role in the process of research. Elliott (1991) asserts that the involvement and participation of teachers in action research enable teachers to solve problems and change. Unlike other methodologies in which the researcher role is that of an outsider, not involved in the field under study, the researcher in action research is usually an 'insider' in the field of research as well as in the research process. In this research, besides performing as a researcher, I also played the role as the teacher, the facilitator, and the monitor of service learning. Being an insider, I realized the feasibility and effectiveness of an action learning strategy in citizenship

education. Furthermore, action research encourages partnership with colleagues.

In this study, I worked closely with the teachers of the experimental school; for example, in the second cycle of classroom teaching, the experimental teacher was my partner. We planned the field study together and monitored the progress of the study.

Third, action research focuses on reflection. Reflection is an integral part of action learning. Similarly, action research focuses on reflection. Various forms of methods and instruments were therefore used to encourage reflection, such as the portfolios, reflective reports, reflective journals and teacher's log.

Fourthly, action research methodology allows changes or adaptations in the process of study. Action research is spiral; it emphasizes changes in the process of research. The researcher can change his/her plan according to the data collected in the prior study. In this study, I tested the feasibility of action learning first, before I proceeded to the subsequent stages of study. In the second cycle, the programme was adapted in order to suit the practical situation of teaching and learning. Such changes are acceptable in action research.

In addition, theories of action research and action learning pedagogy share many common characteristics. They are twins and cannot be separated. Some researchers have even termed action research as action learning, for example, Kemmis and McTaggart (2000, p. 570). Action learning is based on the relationship between

reflection and action (McGill & Beaty, 1995, p.21). This relationship is the same as in action research as pointed out by Peter Reason (2001): ‘action research is about working towards practical outcomes, and also about creating new forms of understanding since action without reflection and understanding is blind, just as theory without action is meaningless’ (p.2). The reflections from myself, the students and teachers provided important data that helped to answer my research questions.

11.3.2 Selection and use of evaluation instruments

The study was an empirical study conducted in different contexts, viz. the school classroom, social community, and the special school for seriously mentally handicapped children. The roles of participants in the study changed in different contexts. It was therefore inappropriate to adopt only one method, for example, interview, because I would miss other data that would help to answer the research questions. Furthermore, the design of the study was complex (with three cycles of research), and I had five research questions; using only one method would have given a biased picture and could not have addressed these research questions. Miles and Huberman (1994) advise researchers not to rely on one method because data collected from different methods could be productive for descriptive, reconnoitering, exploratory, confirmatory and hypothesis-testing purposes (p.42). Mason (2002) also

points out that different methods might take different views of the research question (p.76). As each method has its strengths and weaknesses, it is necessary to adopt more than one method to confirm the findings. In this sense, I adopted a variety of methods for data collection to suit different environments, for example interviews, documentary analysis (teacher's log, students' works such as portfolios, reflective journals and worksheets), observation, etc.

A variety of methods certainly helped to validate the reliability of the survey; however it also meant more workload for the teachers involved. As a result, the teachers always mentioned that external assistance would be necessary when implementing an action learning strategy. The various research methods provided huge amounts of data; thus increasing the complexity of study, with the danger of losing focus. The following paragraphs discuss the methods used and the difficulties or problems encountered:

11.3.2.1 Interviewing

In this study, interviews were used in all the three cycles of action research as the views of the participants in each cycle were important in answering the research questions. I interviewed the teachers, the principal, parents and the students. It was impossible to interview the whole class, in total thirty-seven students, because of the time factor. Thus, six students represented their groups. Some students were shy to

Speak up and some had other commitments. The selection of group representatives was thus casual, and depended on their availability and willingness to be interviewed. Students were only available during their recess break and after school. It was rather difficult to get hold of all the six students together. Fortunately, I had built up a good relationship with the experimental group. They showed willingness to give up their recess time in order to attend the interviews. However, there was a risk of the students giving the answers that I wished to hear. Therefore, I had to cross check their feedback with other sources of data in order to support the findings, for example, observations, reflection reports and teacher's feedback.

11.3.2.2 Documentary analysis

Documentary here meant the students' work such as portfolios, reflection reports and reflective journals, the teacher's log and the video tapes I used to record the process of the project. Therefore, documentary referred to written documents and visual documents. In fact, these are two distinct approaches. Many things happened either in the classroom teaching or in the service learning project, so it was difficult to collect data purely from observations or the written documents. In this sense, visual documents were used to conjure up a mental image of the study. When using the visual documents, I had considered the warning of Loizos (2000) that research could easily get carried away by the idea of "making a video", and end up letting the

technology dominate the research (p. 106). Therefore the visual documents (video-tapes) were mainly used to support my observations, for example the collaboration among students in the cycle of classroom teaching.

The written documents were written in Chinese so I had to translate them into English. There was a problem when translating students' work as their expressions sometimes did not make sense. If I just translated students' writing literally without reference to syntax and idiom, readers would have difficulties in understanding. However, a loose translation would carry the risk of misinterpreting what was originally said. In this dilemma, I determined to stick to students' original meaning.

11.3.2.3 Observation

McNiff et al. (2003) say, 'In a sense, all research begins with observation (p. 118).' Observation methods were mainly adopted in the second and third cycles. My main purposes of observation were (1) to collect data on the teaching competence of the experimental teacher in the second cycle; and (2) to collect data on the five identified moral values of students in the classroom and in the service learning project. Together with observations, I jotted down the important points I saw or drew diagrams or charts as my field notes.

It was more difficult to use observation methods in the third cycle than in the second cycle because I played several roles, i.e. as researcher, leader and the

facilitator. In this sense, I was heavily committed in the service learning activities so could not spare time for independent observation in that situation. Thus some important data might have been missed. Therefore, cross referencing of the visual and written documents was necessary.

11.3.2.4 Questionnaire survey

The questionnaire survey would have been more meaningful if the pre test had been arranged at the beginning of the second cycle. In this way, data on students' perceptions of the five moral values could have been collected before the implementation of action learning. However the school programme made that difficult. The pre test could only be arranged in the third cycle. As a result, the findings only illustrated changes in the experimental group's five moral values after the service project.

11.3.2.5 Portfolio

The portfolio was my first trial of this new form of assessment with primary students. It was also the first time that the teacher-observers in the first cycle had heard this term. The four teacher-observers and the curriculum development officer revealed their worries about the difficulties in using it. Though I did not gain the support of the teachers, the portfolios illustrated progress in students' learning and thinking and, provided a lot of data for study, in the aspects of knowledge, skills and values.

These data helped in analyzing the effectiveness of an action learning strategy in citizenship education.

11.3.2.6 Teacher's log

The teacher's log was very useful in helping teachers to reflect on their teaching and provided rich sources of data in this research but this practice would not be feasible in the long term as a teacher's workload is too heavy to keep a teaching log for a long time. Hence, if an action learning strategy could be implemented in future, the prerequisite would be to reduce the teacher's load.

11.3.2.7 Reflection report

The format of the reflection report in the second cycle of research was simple. Students were only required to write what they saw and how they felt about the activities learned in lessons. The reflection reports gave rich data in analyzing the aspects of knowledge, skills and values in the cycle of classroom teaching. In fact, the experimental teacher was pleased to read in the reflection reports that the students were in favour of her action learning approach to teaching. Thus, the reflection report was not only a source of data, it was also a source of teaching satisfaction for the teacher.

11.3.2.8 Reflective journal

As pointed out by Wade (1997), community service learning provides opportunities

for reflection, so each student was asked to write his/her own reflective journal in the third cycle of the research study. Students had to describe the behaviours of the recipients of services, the difficulties they encountered and the solutions, and their feelings about the action learning. Before I asked the students to write their reflective journals, the teachers who helped in the service learning queried the ability of primary students to reflect on their learning. The outcomes showed the teachers that the students could reflect on their service. Students' writings in the journals provided an abundance of useful data. For example, nearly half of the class expressed their gratitude to their parents for being healthy people both mentally and physically. Without their reflective journals, the questions of effectiveness and feasibility of action learning could not have been addressed so fully.

Nevertheless, the format of the reflective journal in this research was too open and allowed a lot of space for students to write whatever they felt and saw. This format would be suitable for high school students but perhaps not for primary students. If I could have the opportunity to trial the project again, I would provide more guidelines for students in order to develop their reflective ability.

I had difficulty in collecting students' reflective journals as they were not assessed. Each week after the service programme, I had to chase the students for their reflective journals. Though teachers revealed that the reflective journals would

not be formally assessed, I would give grades to students according to their performance if I could have chance to conduct the project again. In this way, those students who performed well could be encouraged.

11.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

11.4.1 What approach to learning would be suitable for children learning citizenship education in Hong Kong?

Given that the key question of this study was to study the effectiveness of action learning, it was investigated in all three cycles of the research. Since effectiveness was defined in terms of learning outcomes in knowledge, skills and values, whether the question of effectiveness was addressed is therefore judged from the perspectives of knowledge, skills and values.

11.4.1.1 Knowledge

Though the learning activities in the three cycles of action research were different, they were all related to the theme of environmental protection. The activities were designed according to the theory of action learning (McGill & Beaty, 1995) and Kolb's (1984) Learning Cycle that the process of learning should include the elements of action (experience) and reflection.

The data in students' portfolios and their learning reports, provided evidence that

action learning could be introduced successfully. For example, 28 out of 35 (75.6%) students indicated in their portfolios that they had a deeper understanding of environmental protection. However, they did not show any significant improvement in examination assessment compared with previous examination results. Although the experimental group did not show much change in school examination results, students did show they had good understanding of environmental protection from entries in their portfolios, reflection reports and class work. Their real understanding was demonstrated by students' reflections in portfolios and reflection reports. They not only described what they had learned from texts, they could identify the problems and suggest resolutions. Furthermore, they showed concern for environmental protection and even put theory into practice, for example, they started to put the leftover food in the fridge for the next meal. These reactions in their daily lives were more important than questionnaire results or high scores in examinations.

If we evaluate students' learning merely from their examination results, then there is no evidence that an action learning approach leads to better results than the traditional approach. Nevertheless, data from the three cycles of action research confirmed that students preferred to learn under action learning approach. If we see the effectiveness of action learning in students' conceptions of learning (McGill & Beaty, 1995), viz. understanding rather than memorizing, and students' interest in

learning, then on this evidence an action learning approach can be effective.

11.4.1.2 Abilities or skills

Various learning abilities, for example, inquiry, decision-making, collaboration, problem-solving and reflective abilities were developed and enhanced in the action learning approach to citizenship education. Among these abilities, the reflective ability was the most significant. At first, teachers did not believe that primary students had reflective ability. The portfolios, reflection reports and reflective journals provided evidence that even primary students were able to reflect if opportunities for reflection were provided. Students' reflection on their work helped them to construct their knowledge; for example, after students had studied water pollution in three different sites, they inquired into the possible solutions to the problem. In this process, several social skills and learning abilities were developed. These situations occurred frequently in the action learning research. So, in development of skills, the action learning strategy was effective.

11.4.1.3 Values and attitudes

The action learning project was part of a larger theme 'environmental protection'. Four environmental concepts, namely reuse, reduce, recycle and reproduce were taught. The values of the concepts of reuse, reduce and recycle were strengthened and enhanced. For example, 36 out of 37 students indicated in their portfolios that

they were applying these three concepts in their living. But the concept of reproduce was seldom mentioned. Apart from the values of environmental concepts, the value of responsibility was instilled. Students learned the value of civic and social responsibility from the learning activities such as environmental health in the community survey, water sample test, air pollution test, and the service projects.

Data collected from this study showed that the experimental group showed many changes in their attitudes and moral values. Students revealed that they began to show care and concern for the environment after their participation in the water sample test in the first cycle. This caring and attitude of civic concern was further strengthened in the subsequent cycles and affirmed in the post project interview which was conducted six months after the project. Besides a caring attitude, students also demonstrated changes in other attitudes such as collaboration and respect for others. In fact, the experimental group did not demonstrate significant change in their respect for others until they participated in the service learning project. Students demonstrated apparent changes after three months service in the special school for the seriously mentally handicapped. This implies service learning was effective in building up positive moral values in citizenship education.

The action learning approach to learning in citizenship education was effective from the perspective of students. However, the result was not the same from the

perspective of teachers. Despite the positive and favourable response from students and the teachers' professional gain from the research, teachers were in a dilemma. For example, the experimental teacher in particular, admitted that her teaching competence improved when adopting the action learning approach but she struggled very much with the heavy workload she faced. As a result, teachers only partially supported the action learning approach in the implementation of citizenship education. The reasons they gave were mainly because the preparation of action research was time consuming and increased their workload, and their current working environment did not allow them to spend too much time on preparation. They always commented that the 'success' of an action learning strategy was merely because of my involvement in the physical context.

In this connection, although the effectiveness of an action learning strategy, was positive from the perspectives of students, we cannot ignore teachers' needs and feelings. Therefore, adaptation is likely to be necessary in future implementation.

11.4.2 What was the teacher's role in action learning?

The prerequisites for the success of action learning are that the design of the programmes must be child-centred, and participatory, and teacher must act as a facilitator than an instructor. Therefore, I wished to investigate whether a facilitator role would affect the effectiveness of action learning.

Action learning is very different from traditional teaching. The latter is highly prescriptive; no discretionary interpretations are permitted, as they would only encourage students to mirror teachers' instructions as closely as possible. Sugrue (1997) describes traditional teaching: "teacher-centred, memorization, verbatim internalization rather than understanding was required so that appropriate amounts of information could be regurgitated in response to examination questions" (p.3). Dialogues and conversations in classroom only occurred in the questions and answers process. Thus, the teacher performed as a traditional instructor. Students would not participate actively in the traditional learning environment. They would show less initiative in learning. This approach to learning is not the expectation of the current education reform in Hong Kong. Conversely, action learning emphasizes "process rather than product, understanding rather than acquisition of information, originality and creativity more than regurgitation of 'the facts'" (Sugrue, 1997, p.6). To realize action learning, teachers must be able to maximize opportunities for students to inquire, to arouse their interests in learning, and should be liberal so that students' thinking will not be jeopardized. All these are the requirements of being a facilitator. In this connection, before the start of the second cycle of the research, I spent some time discussing the importance of a facilitator role with the experimental teacher.

At first, the experimental teacher was defensive. She argued that the facilitator role would cause classroom management problems and she worried that she would not be able to cover the teaching syllabus if adopting the facilitator role. Her arguments on the consequences of adopting a facilitator role would be shared by other teachers. In this sense, I needed to investigate whether the facilitator role was necessary in action learning.

The experimental teacher did not perform the role as facilitator in the beginning of the second cycle of research, and the outcomes of her teaching were not satisfactory. After joint evaluation, she began to change her role and realized the differences between an instructor role and a facilitator role. Students started to learn more actively and happily when the teacher became more facilitative. In comparison with the learning outcomes between the two roles, data shown in her teaching log, video-tapes, interviews with the experimental teacher and the students provided evidence that a facilitator role would facilitate the effectiveness of action learning. Conversely, the instructor role was a hindrance to learning. Nevertheless, the development of facilitative teaching could be jeopardized by heavy workload and a congested curriculum. These are the hurdles that teachers have to overcome. Furthermore, the size of class was also a factor that hindered the development of a facilitator role. If class size could be reduced, teacher could more easily adopt this

form of pedagogy.

11.4.3 Did students show changes in values and behaviour?

This research study expected to see changes in both the experimental teacher and the experimental group after the implementation of action learning because “the power of action learning is learning through experience in order to change rather than simply repeating previous patterns” (McGill & Beaty, 1996, p.22). The CDC 2001 document *Learning to Learn* also states that gradual change in the development of the whole person is expected (CDC, 2001, p.14). Furthermore, the objectives of action research are improvement and change (Elliott, 1991; McNiff, 1998). It was therefore necessary to investigate whether the action learning pedagogy would change students’ values.

Ormell (1980) views values as things that one has to work at, to strive for, to expand effort to live up to. Rath, Harmin and Simon (1978) define values as

“People grow and learn through experiences. Out of experiences may come certain general guides to behaviour. These guides tend to give direction to life and may be called values. ...because values are a part of everyday living, they operate in very complex circumstances and usually involve more than simple extremes of right and wrong, good and bad, true or false” (p.26).

According to the data indicated in interviews with teachers, students and parents,

the portfolios, the reflection reports and reflective journals, the experimental group apparently showed some changes in values and attitudes after they had gone through this two years action learning study. Five moral values, viz. participation, respect for others, collaboration, self-regulation, and civic and social concern were selected as the focus of study. The reasons for choosing these five values were discussed in chapter five.

Not all the five identified moral values had changed significantly (see chapter 10, table 10.4, p.40) by the end of the research. Among these five values, according to the data collected from the interviews with parents and teachers, reflective journals and my observations, students changed positively in the values of respect for others, collaboration and participation. In the interviews with parents and teachers, both groups admitted that the experimental group showed substantial change in the value of respect for others but small changes in civic and social concern and self-regulation. However, the results illustrated from the above data were not consistent with the results shown in the questionnaire survey. In the questionnaire survey, only the values of respect for others and civic and social concern showed significant changes. The inconsistency of results could be explained by the differences between beliefs and values. Students might have positive beliefs about all these moral values but their behaviours might not be consistent with the values. Furthermore, the time span

between the pre and post questionnaire survey was probably too short, thus reducing the chance of a significant change being evident in the quantitative data.

According to Rath, Harmin and Simon (1978), if one's behaviour is flighty and inconsistent with one's values, it is evidence of 'belief' or 'attitudes'. This definition given by Rath et al helped explain not only the above issue, but also why the data illustrated from Part I of the questionnaire did not tally with the data in Part II. Part I was the 30 questions describing a scenario related to the five selected moral values and Part II was composed of 10 moral values which were presented in phrases. Though there is inconsistency between the quantitative and qualitative data, the changes in the five moral values investigated in the action research are evident in all the qualitative data.

11.4.4 What were the reactions of teachers, principal, parents?

We cannot measure the effectiveness of action learning pedagogy merely from the reactions and responses of the experimental group and the experimental teacher. I needed to study the reactions of other teachers and the school principal as well as the parents, because an effective teaching pedagogy has close links with the school curriculum, school management, school ethos, goals, etc. All these elements are relevant to school effectiveness. An effective school curriculum cannot be divorced from the teaching strategies, school goals, school policies, teachers' competence,

academic results and school outcomes (Hargreaves, 2001). According to Hargreaves (2001), there are two overriding outcomes of schooling: cognitive and moral. Both outcomes aim to enable the citizens to lead a good life.

The school principal was concerned whether the research project was in line with the education reform and the school's development as a whole. Therefore, when designing this action learning research project, I had to discuss with the school principal and the curriculum officer how to ensure that the research project was aligned with the school policies, school management and, of course, the school curriculum. Without the green light from the school principal, I could not proceed with the study. Apart from these, I also had to seek the support of parents and the teachers, particularly for the first and the third cycles of research as they were conducted after school hours. As a result, the school principal wrote letters to all the parents informing them about my study and let the parents decide whether their children would join the research programmes. The school principal and the curriculum officer also discussed with the teaching staff of General Studies whether the action learning pedagogy was an appropriate teaching approach for the subject. Without the support of the school as a whole, the three cycles of action research could not have been carried out. Therefore, the feedback and opinions from teachers, school principal and parents were important.

11.4.4.1 The school principal

The school principal had seen the need for change when the government documents: *Learning to Learn* and *Basic Education Curriculum Guide* were published by the Curriculum Development Council in 2001 and 2002 respectively. She suggested that her colleagues adopt a child-centred approach to teaching, but did not gain strong support from them. Therefore, she treated this research study as an opportunity to change the perception and attitude of the teachers. Furthermore, she contended that citizenship education was important to the growth and development of children in primary education. She believed that if a school had outstanding academic results but could not produce good citizens, it was not an effective school. She supported the objectives of action learning, particularly service learning, so when I approached her for the investigation of the effectiveness of action learning pedagogy in her school, she agreed without hesitation.

The school principal was eager to see her students behave properly in every event of the first cycle of demonstration teaching. For this reason she took a firm line with the students who did not perform well in the service project for exchange of school uniforms.

Though the school principal supported the research study, and wished to support innovation in the teaching and learning of citizenship education, in view of the strong

resistance of the teachers to portfolio assessment, she gave up the idea eventually. She understood that if she insisted on including portfolio assessment, it would not only affect teachers' morale; teachers' cooperation would also be affected. Furthermore, portfolio assessment was not common in Hong Kong. Teachers had little knowledge of it. Therefore, even though the school principal supported portfolio assessment, she gave way reluctantly.

The principal's support for action learning was positive. She wished all her teaching staff to adopt this teaching strategy when she witnessed the outcomes of the study. However, in view of the strong resistance from teachers to the authentic assessment, i.e. portfolio and reflective journals, she did not insist on implementing portfolios in the coming academic year. Instead, she invited me to deliver a talk to all her teachers on the effectiveness of the action learning strategy and portfolio assessment two years after the project, i.e.2004, aiming to give more information to the teachers about this teaching approach and assessment. From the perspective of school improvement, the principal understood that it was undesirable to force her staff to adopt all the new changes at once. Her tactic was to allow the teachers a cooling down period. However, an additional factor requiring the principal's attention is to review the teachers' workload, in order to minimize their dissatisfaction from work.

In general, the school principal supported the action learning strategy and

regarded this strategy as effective in the implementation of citizenship education.

11.4.4.2 The teachers

The teachers here included the curriculum development officer, and the teacher-observers in the first cycle of research, the experimental teacher in the second cycle, and the teacher-helpers in the third cycle. Altogether nine teachers were involved. In general the teachers involved in this research, except the class teacher and the experimental teacher, did not show full support to the action learning strategy, particularly service learning. The teachers, nevertheless agreed that the ideas and the outcomes were consistent with the rationale of the educational reform. They supported the strategy under the conditions that additional staffing would be provided so they would have less teaching duties. There were several reasons for their objection:

(i) heavy teaching load:

Teachers criticized the action learning pedagogy as time consuming in preparation and assessment in comparison with the traditional teaching. For example, teachers had to design activities and to provide opportunities for students to learn through experience. However, the teaching environment, with around 35 to 36 lessons per week and an average 35 students per class, did not allow them to spare too much time for preparation. Perhaps if the request for ‘small class teaching’ from schools is

accepted by the Education Manpower Bureau, teachers might consider more seriously how to implement action learning strategy.

(ii) assessment:

Despite the effectiveness of portfolios, reflection reports and reflective journals in helping students to understand their learning and develop their reflective skills, not all teachers supported the assessment methods I used, viz. the portfolio and the reflective journal. They regarded these two methods as time consuming and difficult to assess because there were no standard answers in portfolio and reflective journal assessments. Furthermore, they worried that parents would argue with teachers about the grading of their children because the grading would affect the children's secondary school placement result. As a result, they would only adopt these assessment methods if they were not assessed.

(iii) additional manpower:

They admitted that the experimental group showed changes in their behaviour and attitudes in this study. They thought that this was because the project was supervised by me. They had little confidence in obtaining similar results without my involvement.

Their reactions and responses were expected and understood because these teachers, like many teachers in Hong Kong, were exhausted by the current educational

reform. The teachers of the experimental school supported the reform, as well as the action learning strategy. But they could not digest all the new things at once and they were not prepared to change their teaching style so soon. Their dissatisfaction at work arose from their working conditions. In recent years, teachers in Hong Kong have faced many new educational policies: benchmark standards for English, Chinese languages teachers, the Territory-wide System Assessment, new training for teachers to teach specialist subjects, external school review, and a new curriculum for nearly all subjects, for example, Mathematics, General Studies, English Language, Putonghua, Chinese Language, Music, Visual Arts, etc. In the eyes of teachers, both primary and secondary, education reform created pressure and became the underlying cause of resistance to change their usual teaching strategy.

However, the experimental teacher who had experienced the benefits that action learning brought to her teaching and learning and the class teacher who witnessed the positive changes in her students, were less resistant. In the talk I delivered in December 2004 for the teachers of the experimental school, the experimental teacher gave evidence to her colleagues regarding the benefits action learning brought to students. She revealed that since this research study, she had adopted action learning on the topic of 'Environmental Protection'. Furthermore, she was now using a facilitator role in her teaching as far as possible. She found that the relationships

between herself and students had improved.

Teachers gain satisfaction from work because they see their students making progress (e.g. Galloway et al., 1985). In this sense, the reactions of teachers varied in the study according to their participation in the research and the interaction with the students. From the feedback of the experimental teacher, I am optimistic that the action learning strategy will be more widely implemented in future.

11.4.4.3 The parents

Parents' feedback was important because they could inform me about the behaviours and attitudes of the students at home. Their reactions were encouraging and positive. The parents were grateful to the school for providing opportunities for their children to participate in this research study, particularly the service learning project because of the significant changes in their children's moral values. However, despite the benefits that the action learning approach brought to their children, the parents would have had reservations if service learning had been formally assessed. Their contradictory reactions were understandable, as the Education Manpower Bureau has not provided further information on authentic assessment. The parents' major objective was that their children obtain a place in a good secondary school¹⁶. They did not want new assessment methods that might affect their children's academic

¹⁶ The government categorizes all secondary schools into three bands. The top band, band one schools are EMI school, that means English is the medium of instruction. Band two and three are Chinese schools, are of lower banding.

results. The parents' reaction shows that the Education Manpower Bureau and the schools need to explain to the public the reliability of authentic assessment methods in order to remove confusion and worries of parents.

11.4.5 What is the impact of action learning on citizenship education?

11.4.5.1 Development of active citizenship

Action learning pedagogy emphasizes participation so it is also termed a participatory approach. Students had plenty of opportunities to participate. It is important to note that talking without action is meaningless. Only through participation, can students actualize what they have learned. Only through the experience they gain from participation, can students correct their values and behaviour. The experimental group demonstrated changes in their behaviour and values of respect for others, collaboration, and civic and social concern after their participation in this two-year project. Findings in this research also showed that students preferred a high level of participation rather than low. Among all the activities in the research study, data showed that male students liked the water sample test and air pollution test most, and the female students liked the service learning project, water sample test and the survey of the environmental health of community the most. All these activities allowed students to design activities, and to investigate the answers. The findings of the increased civic and social concern in this study confirmed the theories behind

Hart's (1992) ladder of participation and de Winter's (1997) levels of participation; the greater extent of students' own initiative and freedom of choice in participation, the higher their commitment to citizenship.

11.4.5.2 Alignment with the current education reform

The action learning pedagogy emphasizes the process of how children learn from their group-mates through experience and reflection. This learning approach is aligned with the goal of the educational reform in Hong Kong, viz. 'learning to learn' and child-centred learning. This approach enabled students to think deeply about what they had learned because they were able to collect first hand information in the process of learning. From their experiences while learning, they were able to construct new knowledge.

Furthermore, the learning activities in this study were closely related to students' living and conduct beyond classroom. This is consistent with the objectives of the learning approach in moral and civic education that 'it embodies a holistic approach covering areas most relevant to students' daily life (life events) and related to values development...' and 'life-wide learning opportunities are provided for students' (CDC, 2002a, Section 3a, p.1). Therefore, the action learning strategy was aligned with the goal of current educational reform.

11.4.5.3 Enhancement of learning

McGill and Beaty (1995) contended that there are five types of learning:

- 1 Gaining bits and pieces of knowledge
- 2 Memorizing
- 3 Applying knowledge
- 4 Understanding
- 5 Understanding in relation to the real world

They further pointed out that a sixth type could be added namely ‘Developing as a person’ if an action learning strategy was adopted. (p.174)

It is clear that the findings of action learning were not about gaining bits and pieces of knowledge because the whole research study was under one theme ‘Environmental Protection’; it was not principally about memorizing facts as students were not required to memorize the content they learned. In fact, students had plenty of opportunities to apply knowledge in all three cycles of the research, and through the learning process, students were able to understand what they observed in relation to the real world. For example, students understood that human activities were the major cause of water and land pollution when they participated in survey activities.

The data also support McGill and Beaty’s (1995) view that action learning helped students develop as individuals. According to the findings, students not only

showed changes in the five moral values (respect for others, collaboration, participation, civic and social concern and self-regulation), but some students also became more confident in their work. Through the process of reflection, students had a change in how they saw themselves. Thus, action learning enabled students to enhance their conceptions of learning.

11.4.5.4 Enhancement of teaching competence

Successful implementation of an action learning strategy relies on the rigorous design of activities which provide opportunities for students to learn from each other; to acquire knowledge, skills and values through the process of learning; to be able to reflect on what the students have learned. The role played by the teacher is also important. The experimental teacher showed professional growth when she played the role as a facilitator in the second cycle of the research. Given that action learning pedagogy is a child-centred, learning by doing strategy, unlike the traditional teaching approach, the teacher has to help students to inquire instead of telling them everything. Furthermore, action learning emphasizes group work and collaboration; thus, the teacher has to manage all the groups in order to ensure students are working smoothly and cooperatively. S/he has to be sure that students will not disrupt the classroom discipline. Therefore, adopting action learning should help teachers to develop their class management skills.

Apart from the facilitator role, the teacher's reflective ability was developed. The establishment of the teacher's log and the video-records of her teaching helped to enhance her reflective ability. By keeping the teacher's log and recording her teaching, the experimental teacher was able to review the process of her teaching, her design of activities and students' reactions. The experimental teacher learned to reflect on why she had to ask a question, and whether there was an alternative. She also evaluated why the learning atmosphere changed, how and why students could be helped to think deeper. The introspection on her teaching, with her thinking and feeling, constituted reflection. Thus, keeping the teacher's log and recording the lessons were the agents for the teacher to reflect on her work.

11.4.5.5 Promoting personal development

The action learning pedagogy, unlike the didactic teaching in which students played a passive role in learning, as pointed out by Kinsley and McPherson (1995), Rhoads (1997), and Waterman (1997), provides opportunities for students to work collaboratively with others, to foster civic and social responsibility, and to enhance self-efficacy and self-esteem.

11.4.5.6 Enhancement of collaborative attitude

As action learning emphasizes group tasks, the experimental students had to learn how to work collaboratively with others; through working with their group members

they learned respect for others. For example, when some students learned that every group member had the right to express their opinions and to give suggestions, they decided to let every member take turns when they wished to speak.

11.4.5.7 Fostering civic and social responsibility

By involving students in the field, for example, collection of water samples from a river, inquiring into the environmental health condition of the school community, and the air pollution test, they realized that individual and collective action could improve and protect the environment; for example, some students asserted that they would not drop litter. They also recognized that the government had the responsibility to improve the environment by increasing the penalty on those who littered. Students also said that they began to read newspapers after their participation in the project in order to learn what had happened in society.

11.4.5.8 Development of self-efficacy and self-esteem

From the data collected from students, parents and teachers, the action learning research project helped students increase their feelings of self-efficacy and self-esteem. For example, many students wrote in their reflections on poverty that they felt they were fortunate and affluent in comparison with the children living in Somalia. Parents also revealed that their children's feeling of self-esteem increased when they participated in the service learning project.

11.4.5.9 Development of students' reflective ability

The experimental teacher and other teachers involved in this research study doubted whether their students were able to reflect on what they had learned in the action learning research study. The requirement to keep portfolios, and to write reflection reports and reflective journals provided clear evidence that even primary school children had reflective ability. There were differences in reflection between the male and female students; all students displayed their reflective ability in their writings, but the female students wrote longer reflective journals than male students.

Why is reflection important in an action learning strategy and in citizenship education? Reflection is an integral part of action learning. It is intentional and is a complex activity in which feelings and cognition are closely interrelated and interactive (McGill & Beaty, 1995, p. 194). Reflection helps students think critically and construct knowledge. Critical thinking is an essential quality of good citizenship.

11.4.5.10 A long-term service learning project is more beneficial to students than a short-term one

The service project, was probably the first long-term service project in primary schools in Hong Kong. It is my belief that a long-term service project benefits students more than a one short service. According to the research results reported by

Blyth, Saito and Berkas (1997), students who performed more hours of service showed greater increase in social responsibility for civic involvement and less disengagement from school (p.52). Currently, in response to the education reform, many schools arrange short-term community service for their students such as visiting a home for the aged or fund raising for a voluntary social welfare organization. Though there is no comparative study on the effectiveness between long-term service and short-term service, the research results of this study confirmed that the outcomes of this long-term service project showed benefits for students in knowledge, skills and values. In addition, students' responses demonstrated that they preferred a long-term service project because they had adequate opportunities to build up closer relationship with the people they were helping and with their group mates. At the end of the project, many students asserted that they had enjoyed collaboration. Some also said that they had made friends with the mentally handicapped children. An important finding was that many students showed more respect for their classmates, the seriously mentally handicapped children, and their domestic helpers at home. Of course long-term service is not a panacea in changing students' values; a small group of students did not show any improvement on completion of the project, but it is clear that a well planned and organized long-term service project can bring many positive results.

The four teacher-helpers argued that the service was too large in scale, and they queried whether it was feasible in primary school. As a matter of fact, the project only served the seriously mentally handicapped of one special school. The special school provided both human and financial resources to the project. In this sense, the teacher-helpers did not have much to do. They acted more like observers than helpers. Their complaint was about the duration of the project, not the scale. Their low participation in the project could not give them satisfaction at work. Perhaps if they could have a chance to plan and organize a long-term service, and witness the positive changes in their students, they would change their views on a 'large-scale' service project.

11.5 THE WIDER CONTEXT

11.5.1 Relevance of initiatives in citizenship education to the wider context

An effective school should initiate students into the intellectual excellences, such as science, art and practical wisdom; and moral excellence, such as courage, justice and self-control (Hargreaves, 2001, p.488). A good school should not only emphasize academic outcomes; development of students' moral sense is also important. Thus, the development of effective citizenship education is essential. An action learning strategy is considered an agent to nurture good citizenship. This strategy will require

students to work collaboratively with others, to acquire knowledge through experience and to reflect on what they have learned. Through the process of experience and reflection, students will be able to gain deeper understanding of what they have done. The positive findings of this study showed that the action learning strategy was effective in citizenship education under the following conditions.

11.5.1.1 Well planned and well designed curriculum

As citizenship education in a primary school is not an independent subject, the over-crowded formal curriculum does not allow much space for citizenship education. As a result, many teachers ignore the elements related to citizenship education in their teaching. In this connection, implementation of action learning in citizenship education is only possible if teachers will carefully plan an integrated curriculum in which the element of citizenship education is incorporated. Apart from this, teachers must have a rigorously designed action learning programme when implementing citizenship education.

11.5.1.2 Staff development

Not too many teachers understand the benefits that an action learning pedagogy will bring to students; thus, promotion of this strategy is needed. When I showed the work of students, for example, portfolios, reflection reports, reflective journals and the video-tapes of how the students learned, to the in-service teachers who attended

my training course¹⁷, the majority were amazed to see the outstanding performance of the students. Like the teachers in the experimental school, at first they did not believe primary school children had reflective ability. When they saw the students' reflective journals, they commended the high quality of reflection of the students. The outcomes of the training for teachers were encouraging because some teachers had tried the action learning approach and adopted the facilitator role in their teaching. The results of their trials are still unknown but teachers' response in the present study gave me confidence that action learning in citizenship education was feasible and could be implemented more widely in future.

The different reactions of the teachers in the experimental school and the teachers who participated in my training course merit further discussion. My explanation is that the course participants had the intention to learn about effective implementation of citizenship education, while the teacher-helpers were asked by the school to serve as assistants in the service project. Therefore, the intention of the two groups was different. Perhaps, if the teacher-helpers had the opportunity to plan their own long-term service project, their perceptions and reactions would be different.

¹⁷ This is a five weeks training course for in-service primary school teachers, namely Professional Development Course. There were 26 teachers attending the course. The course is funded by the Education Manpower Bureau. The participants have five weeks study leave when they are on the course.

11.5.1.3 Development of active citizenship and service learning

Though there was resistance from teachers in the experimental school to conducting a long-term service learning project, the external feedback was rather encouraging. Three teachers, after attending the training course for in-service teachers, had designed a long-term service project for their students. However, two copied my service project, i.e. rendering service for seriously mentally handicapped children in the same special school. It is still unknown whether the outcomes were satisfactory; it is hoped that in future teachers will develop their own service projects. On the other hand, their copying behaviour illustrates how primary school teachers prefer to use hands-on materials instead of initiating their own projects. This can be explained by their heavy workload.

Furthermore, there are still many constraints and limitations in promoting an action learning approach in the implementation of citizenship education because many schools have little understanding of how to develop active citizenship and conduct service learning projects. This implies that more training and promotion on the development of active citizenship is required.

In sum, before the implementation of an action learning approach in citizenship education, schools must first ensure that the elements of citizenship are not neglected when designing the citizenship education curriculum. Second, teachers must: (i)

have the knowledge and skills to adopt an action learning strategy, for example, in design of group activities in order to enhance students' collaborative attitudes; (ii) allow students to learn by doing; (iii) maximize participation opportunities; and (iv) provide opportunities for students to reflect on their works. Action learning can only be adopted if the schools are prepared.

11.5.2 Relevance of citizenship education in the wider context of education reform

The action learning pedagogy, though not tailor-made, links closely with the education reform. The goal of education reform is 'Learning to learn' (CDC, 2001) whereas the aim of citizenship education is to nurture active citizenship (CDC, 2002a). The Curriculum Development Council (CDC, 2001, 2002a) suggests to schools that the implementation of citizenship education should be child-centred and based on useful practices. Similarly, the action learning strategy emphasizes the process of learning, with a high level of participation and conceptions of learning. It is, of course, a child-centred approach to learning.

11.5.2.1 Learning to learn and learner-focused orientation

The government has seen the importance of learning skills in the information era. Our new generation needs to have the skills to acquire knowledge and skills to suit the ever-changing world. As stipulated in the *Learning to Learn* and *Curriculum Guide for Basic Education* documents, the objectives of developing students' learning skills

are to enable students to construct knowledge and to cope with change (CDC, 2001 and 2002a). The traditional practice which is didactic and teacher-centred, is not consistent with the contemporary change. To achieve these objectives, the learning must be more child-centred. The special features of action learning approach are: it is child-centred; it requires active participation, it emphasizes learning through experiences, and reflection is an integral part in action learning. All these elements are in line with the education reform.

The *Curriculum Guide for Basic Education* (CDC, 2002a) also states that the learner-focused orientation ‘establishes meaningful connections between students’ daily life encounters and their learning. Discussing real life experiences helps to arouse the interests of students, to engage them in meaningful discussion, and to get them to reflect on their own values, needs and interests’ (p.10). In this regard, reflection is the outcome of citizenship education. Reflection is an integral part of action learning; therefore, the adoption of an action learning pedagogy in citizenship education will enable schools to achieve the objectives of education reform.

11.5.2.2 Active citizenship

The aim of citizenship education indicated in the *Curriculum Guide for Basic Education* (CDC, 2002a) is the development of active citizenship. The document also suggests that schools use community service learning and life events to enhance

whole-person development.

The research on an action learning approach showed that students had ample opportunities to participate. Students acquired knowledge through participation. Students were able to relate their learning to the real world, for example, the water sample test, the service learning project, and many others. Findings confirmed that students' concern for civic and social affairs increased after they had participated in the action learning project. At present, our young generation shows little care for the society in which they live. If action learning can be implemented widely in schools, I believe this scenario could start to change.

11.5.2.3 Service Learning

The Curriculum Guide for Basic Education recommends to schools that community service is an agent to achieve the objectives of education reform. It states 'Student participation in community service or serving others is an easy entry point for the development of a number of priority values. Schools should provide every student with the opportunity to serve others every year to develop responsibility and commitment, ...Through serving others, students engage in learning how to see the needs of others, experience empathy and sympathy, and take appropriate actions to help to improve the quality of life.' (2001, p.12) The CDC perceives service learning as a channel to develop a sense of responsibility and commitment, and

sometimes perseverance or resilience when there are barriers to be overcome. These expectations, illustrated from the above statements, were all shown in the service learning project in this research study.

11.5.2.4 Authentic assessment

The Curriculum Development Council (CDC) understands it is difficult to assess values development. The Council specifies clearly in the Curriculum Guide for Basic Education (CDC, 2002a) that moral and civic education does not aim to compare the achievement of different students but to provide useful feedback and opportunities for reflection. In this connection, CDC recommends schools to use authentic assessment, for example portfolio, observation, recordings and report cards, to replace the traditional assessment, i.e. test and examination (CDC, 2002a, pp.21-22).

However, the findings of this research study showed that the suggestion is premature. Teachers do not have the knowledge and skills to use authentic assessment in citizenship education. In view of the difficulties, the Education Manpower Bureau needs to conduct more training programmes for teachers in order to actualize the objectives of assessment.

In sum, the action learning aligns with the new trend and development of citizenship education but there are still many obstacles to overcome.

11.6 CONCLUSION

The chapter has discussed whether an action research methodology was appropriate for the investigation of the effectiveness of an action learning strategy and whether the selection and use of evaluation instruments provided adequate validity and reliability for the study. This chapter also discusses whether the five research questions were appropriately set and the relevance of action learning strategy in a wider context. In this study, teachers' worries and dissatisfaction from work were identified and discussed. It is hoped that this study will raise the awareness of both the schools and the Education Manpower Bureau on the problems for teachers in the implementation of citizenship education. It is concluded that the action learning strategy is an effective learning strategy in implementation of citizenship education, though resistance from teachers should be anticipated.

In future implementation, schools must take into consideration how to reduce teachers' heavy workload and increase teachers' satisfaction at work and from work. It is also necessary to equip teachers with necessary knowledge and skills for an action learning strategy, for example, a well-designed citizenship education curriculum and authentic assessment. Nevertheless, no matter how laudable the action learning is, we must pay attention to the psychological reactions of teachers in education reform.

CHAPTER TWELVE

CONCLUSION

The Education Department (now Education and Manpower Bureau) recommended that the implementation of citizenship education should be child-centred, and participatory in authentic learning contexts. The trial of action learning in the experimental school aimed to test whether this strategy could address the objectives stipulated in the two CDC's (2001, 2002a) two documents, viz. *Learning to Learn – The Way Forward in Curriculum Development* and *The Curriculum Guide for Basic Education – Moral and Civic Education*. The design of the research study was influenced by literature on action learning and action research.

12.1 THE THEORY OF ACTION LEARNING AND THE RESEARCH STUDY

There are three main criteria for action learning: first, it is performed in groups; second, there should be a task assigned for action or participation; and third reflection is the end product. The design of this research thus emphasized collaboration, participation and reflection.

Both the students and their teachers had many opportunities for collaboration and reflection on work in the authentic context. The results of the study were partially encouraging. On one hand, the results suggested that students' learning was enhanced from the perspectives of knowledge, skills and values. For example,

students' sense of responsibility increased; their attitudes of collaborative, caring and civic concern, respect for others were strengthened. Furthermore, their reflective ability was developed. The teaching competence of the experimental teacher was also enhanced. On the other hand, the results also revealed the problems in implementation of the action learning strategy because the existing teaching load does not allow teachers to spare much time to develop a new strategy. In addition, there is limited space for the development of service learning in the overcrowded curriculum.

12.1.1 How did this study differ from action learning theory?

Action learning theory focuses on changes and reflection. According to McGill and Beaty (1966), the power of action learning is in learning through experience in order to change rather than simply repeating previous patterns. They further pointed out that 'reflection is a necessary precursor to effective action'. (1995, p.21) Findings of this research suggested that students learned through experience, and this helped in changing their values. For example, students illustrated significant changes in the values of reuse and reduce. However, students demonstrated little change in the value of reproduce because they did not have adequate opportunities to reflect on this specific value. In other words, merely learning from experience might not necessarily bring change in values. Learning must be supported by reflection as well.

It is arguable that action learning theory has not given a comprehensive view of

the power of action learning. By focusing mainly on how to involve students in learning, it may have under-estimated the problems that teachers face in performing their role in the action learning process. It is impossible to study students' learning without studying how and what the teacher contributes to the process of learning. This study not only investigated how students could learn effectively through action learning strategy; it also studied how a teacher developed her teaching competence by playing the role as a facilitator of learning and by keeping her teaching log.

12.2 NEW FINDINGS IN THIS STUDY

The action learning strategy described in this study had implications for the implementation of citizenship education in Hong Kong primary sector. The first implication was for the teacher's role. Findings in this study showed that a facilitator was central to success in an action learning strategy. However, findings illustrated that teachers are likely to resist adopting a facilitator role as it is a time consuming strategy in the early stage. The teacher in this study accepted the adoption of action learning strategy only when she saw the positive outcomes in students' learning and the better teacher-students rapport. A significant element in this research study was that it did not merely study students' learning; the research also studied how teachers adopted the teaching strategy and how the teacher enhanced her

teaching competence in citizenship education during the implementation of an action learning strategy. Thus, the action research provides data on how teachers taught and how students learned in the adoption of an action learning strategy.

12.3 WHAT HAVE WE LEARNT FROM THIS RESEARCH STUDY?

Though the results of the research displayed some positive and encouraging outcomes, this study was merely a study of one class in one school. Would the results be the same if the action learning strategy were to be implemented in other classes? Would the outcomes be the same if the teaching was conducted by other teachers? How do other teachers perceive action learning strategies? Furthermore, if only the experimental teacher adopted action learning strategy in her teaching, s/he would be isolated in her school. The isolation of a teacher in the teaching environment would not benefit the teacher, nor the school as a whole. Moreover, if only the experimental teacher demonstrated the value of action learning, his or her influence would be insufficient to change the attitude of the school towards the implementation of citizenship education.

In fact, not all teachers accepted this strategy. Data in the first and third cycles of action research illustrated that teachers did not fully support the action learning strategy and had reservations about change their teaching approach. Their resistance

to change implied that the outcomes of learning and teaching could have been different if implemented by other teachers, since they were not in favour of the new strategy for two reasons. First, they were used to the traditional teaching approach; second, they contended that action learning approach was excessively time-consuming. They could not spare much time to change from their current approach.

Moreover, teachers revealed that they lacked confidence to conduct a long-term service learning project. They felt that they did not have the knowledge and skills to conduct service learning. This is a training need that the Education Department (now Education and Manpower Bureau) should address.

12.4 FUTURE DEVELOPMENT

Adoption of an action learning strategy in one class cannot really show the feasibility of this new approach to the teaching and learning of citizenship education in primary school. In future projects it would be desirable to introduce an action learning strategy across the whole school in all classes in order to evaluate its practicability. If the majority of the teachers could adopt an action learning strategy in their teaching, and with the same or similar results to the present study, it would provide powerful evidence for the effectiveness of an action learning strategy in citizenship education.

However, this remains a challenging task indeed.

12.5 SUMMARY

The results of study, from the perspective of students, were encouraging. Data showed that students developed deeper understanding of environmental protection through action learning. Data also illustrated that students preferred to learn under the action learning approach. Furthermore, students' various learning skills, for example, reflective ability, social skills, were developed. In addition, the concepts of reuse, reduce and recycle were strengthened. Moral values such as caring attitude, collaboration and respect for others were enhanced. Parents welcomed the implementation of action learning pedagogy, particularly service learning because they could see their children changed their moral values positively.

From the perspective of teachers, the experimental teacher demonstrated improvement in teaching competence in the later part of second cycle of action research when she adopted a facilitator role. However, the positive outcomes demonstrated by the experimental teacher did not convince other teachers to adopt action learning pedagogy in their teaching. First, other teachers did not have the opportunities to test the effectiveness of an action learning pedagogy; second, teachers generally felt exhausted by the education reforms introduced by the Education and

Manpower Bureau. Therefore there was great resistant to adopt a new teaching strategy. Teachers, who were involved in the service learning project, had reservation about incorporating a long-term service learning in their teaching. The major reason was there was no space for service learning in the congested curriculum. Teachers' reactions and views deserve a review of the education policies in Hong Kong as a whole. To conclude, there is space for the development of citizenship education but there are many hurdles to overcome as well.

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Background of the teacher-observers

1. Teacher A

Teacher A was the General Studies Subject Coordinator, and had more than 15 years of teaching experience in primary schools. Her major teaching subjects were General Studies and English. She taught primary five and six General Studies. She was outspoken, firm, serious and rather authoritarian. She preferred strict discipline in classroom management and demanded complete obedience from students.

2. Teacher B

Teacher B was the class teacher of the experimental group. She had nine years of teaching experience. She taught primary six General Studies and Chinese Language. As she was the Chinese Language teacher of the experimental group, part of the feedback from students in action learning was collected through her interaction with her class in the Chinese Language lessons. She was an easy going person, and had very close and friendly relationships with them. She showed great concern and care for her class. Unlike A, she allowed her class to have reasonable freedom. In the interviews, B always showed her disagreement with A.

3. Teacher C

Teacher C taught primary three and five General Studies. She had seven years of teaching experience in primary. Her major teaching subjects were General Studies, Mathematics and Chinese Language. She was pursuing her part-time bachelor degree in a university during the implementation of this project. She was rather quiet, compared with the other three teachers. In our conversations, it struck me that she was not very articulate, particularly in the presence of teacher A.

4. Teacher D

Teacher D was the youngest teacher among the four. She had one year of teaching experience in a secondary school before joining the present primary school. She had had three years experience in a primary school. Her major teaching subjects were General Studies, English and Mathematics. She had the lowest attendance at the demonstration lessons. She was in-charge of the school dancing group and had to train students to participate in the English choral speaking contest.

Teachers' views and opinions in the four interviews regarding Demonstration Teaching.

Aspect of discussion	Focus of activity	Teacher A	Teacher B	Teacher C	Teacher D
Feasibility of action learning	1 st Interview (Briefing)	It was a time consuming strategy but would consider if support was given.	Same as A.	Teachers had heavy workload in school, so had no time for preparation.	Absent
	2 nd Interview (Social Inquiry)	It was a good activity for students to have a better understanding of society.	Timing was the factor determining feasibility.	This activity required good preparation.	Problem of safety and manpower should be taken into consideration.
	3 rd Interview (Water sample test and service learning)	Absent	The activity was very interesting. Teacher would consider including service learning in her teaching.	The water sample test activity required longer time; that was not feasible in real teaching timetable. The activity was simple and easy to monitor, but required extra manpower to take care of the students.	Absent
	4 th Interview (Overall review)	Admitted that action learning was better learning strategy in compare with the didactic approach but time and resources factors jeopardized its development. Restructuring of curriculum for the implementation of action learning was not very possible.	Action learning was effective and should be promoted. Some activities could be conducted after school hours.	Action learning should be supported if she had enough time for preparation. Required more resources for the design of activities.	Had reservation to this approach because of heavy workload and limited teaching time. However, would partially adopt the ideas.

Students' Feedback or reaction	1 st Interview	They were quiet and behaved.	Students liked the water sample test	nil	Absent
	2 nd Interview	They were not very cooperative.	Student enjoyed the activity very much.	Students were happy.	Some students were not happy.
	3 rd Interview	Absent	Students were very excited and eager to finish the worksheets. Girls told their teacher that they learned a lot of things in the process of service.	Some boys were punished by the principal because of their irresponsible attitude.	Absent
	4 th Interview	Students were happy but some arguments existed in discussions	Students enjoyed the lessons very much. They said that the activities were very interesting.	Students liked to have outings.	The class was rather noisy.
Learning outcomes	1 st Interview	- had reservation about portfolio and diaries assessments	Same as A	Same as A	Absent
	2 nd Interview	Inquiry skill and collaboration skill were developed. Students had deeper understanding of environmental protection.	Students' various kinds of skills were developed.	No specific opinion.	Students were able to apply decision-making skill. Students were happy in their learning.
	3 rd Interview	Absent	Objective of finding resolutions to the problem was not achieved. Enquiry skill and collaborative skill were enhanced. Some students were uncooperative.	Students were aware of the problem of water pollution. Students' concepts of 'reuse' and 'recycle' were strengthened. Attitude of 'responsibility' was strengthened.	Absent

	4 th Interview	Inquiry skill was improved.	No specific opinion.	Attitude of care and concern of society was a bit improved.	
Others	1 st Interview	Too much freedom to students would cause disciplinary problem.	Students should have reasonable freedom.	No opinion	Absent
	2 nd Interview	Teachers should give detailed instructions to students.	Agreed that teachers should change to facilitating role.	Support to change role as facilitator.	Facilitator role was inefficient in teaching.
	3 rd Interview	Absent	No specific opinion.	No specific opinion.	Absent
	4 th Interview	Had reservation about portfolio and diaries assessment.	Same as A. Supported the role as facilitator	Portfolios and diaries were possible if not assessed.	Same as A.

Observation Checklist

Name of student:

Group ()

Activity:

Date:

Please ✓ in the appropriate boxes according to student's performance.

1. Inquiry	high	medium	Low
➤ Shows interest to inquire			
➤ Able to ask questions			
➤ Able to collect information through various sources			
2. Problem-solving and decision-making			
➤ Indicates a basic understanding of problems			
➤ Able to select an appropriate strategy			
➤ Able to judge appropriate decision			
3. Collaborative			
➤ Works actively toward achieving the group goals			
➤ Attends the group activities			
➤ Interacts appropriately with group members			
➤ Follows rules and regulations			
4. Observation			
➤ Able to collect information through observation			

Teacher: _____

Am I a good citizen

This questionnaire aims to investigate the attitude of Grade 6 students in five aspects pre and post the service learning project: (1) respect for others, (2) collaboration, (3) self-regulation, (4) civic & social concern, and (5) participation.

Part I Please circle on the appropriate point. Thank you.

	Frequently	Sometimes	Seldom	Never
1 I care for the feelings of my classmates before my own.				
2 I am happy to share my opinions/ideas with my group members.				
3 I queue up to purchase my snack and drinks at the school tuck-shop.				
4 I care about the environmental change.				
5 I always contribute my suggestions/ideas in discussions.				
6 I listen to different opinions of my group members with my full attention.				
7 I give my seat to the elderly or pregnant on public transport.				
8 I support my group members even their works are criticized by others.				
9 I try hard to think of a solution if my group has encountered difficulty.				
10 I keep my belongings tidily at home.				
11 I concern the news (happenings) of society.				
12 I enjoy working on a project with my group members.				

- | | | | | | |
|----|---|--|--|--|--|
| 13 | I air my opinions only after my group members have voiced theirs. | | | | |
| 14 | I put things back in their original place after use at school. | | | | |
| 15 | I like to share works or duties with my group. | | | | |
| 16 | I borrow the properties of my classmates only with their permission. | | | | |
| 17 | I say 'sorry' to my schoolmates if I have done wrong. | | | | |
| 18 | I often blame other members of my group if our work is criticized. | | | | |
| 19 | I do not laugh at my friends when they have done something wrong. | | | | |
| 20 | I accept another group member's suggestion if his/hers is better than mine. | | | | |
| 21 | I do not take the belongings of others without their prior permission. | | | | |
| 22 | I follow the instruction laid down when I use the facilities at school or public parks. | | | | |
| 23 | I care the environmental health of Shatin (my community). | | | | |
| 24 | I turn off the light or air conditioner if I am the last one to leave the classroom. | | | | |
| 25 | What happens in society is not my concern. | | | | |
| 26 | I expect all members of the group have equal participation. | | | | |
| 27 | I follow school rules in school premises even when no teachers or prefects are nearby. | | | | |
| 28 | I take active participation in group project voluntarily. | | | | |

- 29

I enjoy serving the needy.
- 30

I am serious about my part in group project.

Part II Do you think the following values are important to you? Please give 4 to the most important, and 1 to the least importance of each value and put a (X) in the appropriate box.

		4	3	2	1
1	Filial to parents				
2	Respecting teachers				
3	Helping others				
4	Obeying law and order				
5	Caring and concerned my society				
6	Serving the society				
7	Studying hard				
8	Respecting others' opinions				
9	Protecting the environment of the earth				
10	Loving my Country				

-END-

The Somali Farmer

Can the Somali farmer raise the family without any assistance? After the game, please discuss the following questions:

- 1 What difficulties have you encountered during the game? What are the reasons of these difficulties?
- 2 What are possible solutions to these problems?

Objectives:

Upon completion of the game, students should be able to”

- 1 point out that the causes of poverty,
- 2 think about the solutions of the problems,
- 3 develop critical thinking, decision-making and problem-solving skills,
- 4 nurture students’ attitude of helpful and cherish of food.

Rules:

- 1 The numbers in the circles represent the amount of rainfall. The higher the rainfall, the higher the yield of crops. For example, number 9 represents 45cm of rainfall, and can yield 1800 kj of food. You can refer to table A.
- 2 Each group represents one family and each family has six people.
- 3 You have to decide how much food you wish to give to your family members and how much food you wish to save for future. The quantity of food that each person needs ranged from 120 to 200 kj. 120 kj of food is the minimum. If one takes 120 kj for three consecutive months, then one has to ask for help and lose the game.
- 4 Put the quantity of food you take and the quantity you save in each month in table B. You can use the storage of food if that months has low rainfall and the yield is not enough for all the members of the family.
- 5 Choose the first number.
- 6 Count 13 and go clockwise, that is your next number.
- 7 If you stop at the number which has a box, you have to follow the instruction listed in the box. For example, if you stop at the box that your grandfather comes to live with you, then from that month onwards, your family has seven members.

Use your five senses: seeing, hearing, smelling, tasting and touching to study the picture. Imagine that you were in the scenario. Put down what you see, hear, smell, taste and touch in the appropriate columns.

What have I.....

Seen	
Heard	
Smelled	
Tasted	
Touched	

My feeling:



Appendix 10.1(English Version)

My Reflective Journal in Haven of Hope School

Date:

Title of the Activity:

Format of the Activity:

Who responsible for this activity?

How is/are his(her)/their performance?

Why do I say that?

What is the performance/response of the children of Haven of Hope School?

Why do I have this feeling?

The difficulty(ies) I encounter in this activity:

- 1 Preparation Stage
- 2 Collaboration and cooperation with team members
- 3 In communication with children of Haven of Hope School
- 4 Others

How do I solve this/these problem(s)?

If I could have chance to do this service again, I would...

My feeling: